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ABSTRACT

Written with regard to the cultural context of French-speaking African countries, this document begins by describing the administrative role of the school principal. Questions related to each of 56 key words associated with educational administration are offered, and the limitations and freedom provided by administrative regulations is discussed. Next, the principal's role in the educational community is explored through an examination of the principal's role in four areas: (1) management and administration; (2) leadership and training; (3) evaluation and control; and (4) public relations. Included is information on leadership styles; decision making; delegation; staff meetings; the supervision of replacements and of new or inexperienced teachers; monitoring student, class, and school results; examination results; the control and evaluation of teachers; relations with the community, the immediate environment, and users of the school; and institutional participation. A third section explores the principal's role in innovation and development and describes three stages of innovation. Last, an overall school project for school change is outlined in detail. Appended are a glossary and data sheets for record keeping. (15 references) (CLA)

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PRACTICAL GUIDE FOR THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

A METHODOLOGICAL GUIDE TO EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT FOR THE TRAINING OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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Revised version, May 1989

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EA 022 860

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PRELIMNARY NOTE

This text has been written having regard to the cultural context of French-speaking African countries.

1. African education systems are nowadays having to cope with a considerable extension, reflected in a very heavy increase in the number of children attending school. There are a number of reasons for this, among them:

   § The expansion of primary education.
   § A longer period of schooling.
   § The population explosion.
   § The qualitative change in the social demand for education, which is itself sharply increasing.

   This extension gives rise to all the more problems in that it is occurring at a time when budgetary resources are limited, or even being cut down. Following a substantial growth in educational investment in Africa, a ceiling has been reached - or a relative decline has set in - where resources allocated to schooling are concerned.

   This increase in school enrolments is today accompanied to an ever greater extent by a critical analysis of the functioning of the school itself. Schools must nowadays establish evaluation procedures in order to face up to this critical attitude and remain credible.

2. In very many countries, the new goals assigned to education in the context of ambitious reforms are reflected in the introduction of new curricula. But the application of these new curricula, like the adoption of new methods, is a long term undertaking which supposes a considerable effort in regard to the recruitment, initial training and on-going training of teachers. All this calls for new investments in new school buildings and the development of appropriate teaching materials and facilities.

   This effort will be possible only subject to more rigorous forward-looking planning and management.

   Thus the coming decade will doubtless be characterized by the quest for a better functioning of the school and a better quality of teaching.

3. This quest cannot be confined to a new programming of activities at the central level (enrolments, curricula, methods, etc.).

   Nor will the setting of higher standards of teaching qualifications (in initial and on-going training) be sufficient.

The school can today no longer be considered as a set of independent units, called classes, in which the self-contained performance of the teacher and the pupils takes precedence.

Experience, borne out by the latest research, points to the importance to be attached to senior teaching staff - inspectors, their colleagues, and school principals, who produce a "multiplier effect".

4. Unesco, backed by its unequalled experience in the operational field, has taken practical steps to cope with this evolution. For instance, the 1988/89 programme includes, among other projects, the preparation of a methodological guide to educational administration and management, intended for primary school principals.

   An initial version of this guide, written by Jean Valérien, was put into use experimentally and validated at a sub-regional workshop organized in Rabat from 14 to 20 March 1989.

   Its value was confirmed by representatives of nine countries (Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Haiti, Morocco, Mauritania, Senegal, Togo and Tunisia), two Unesco Regional Offices (BREDA and UNEDBAS), three inter-governmental organizations (ACCT, Council of Europe, ISESCO), and three non-governmental organizations (WCOTP, FIAI and FISE). Among senior educational personnel, school principals receive the least attention, and the publication of a practical guide is a positive and important contribution. All the remarks, suggestions, proposals and modifications submitted at this workshop have been incorporated in it.

5. The primary school principal is the person above all others who is responsible for everything that happens in his school. He must at all times conform to regulations.

   It in no way behoves Unesco to propose norms or models applicable in all existing cultural contexts. In the framework of national sovereignty, regulations must be specific to each Member State.

   Since it is not possible to lay down one single set of rules, there can be no universal guide.

   Hence the Methodological Guide to School Administration and Management designed for primary school principals must be regarded as a matrix, or a general skeleton which national authorities can use either as it stands, as a basic training document, or transform into a national guide by adding to it and adapting it.

6. Whatever the form of utilization adopted, adaptation or otherwise, its essential purpose is to enable the primary school principal to see his day-to-day job in perspective, from the outside as it were. This objective view leads to a self-analysis which does not relate to questions put for purposes of evaluation or control, but relates to questions leading to forms of self-evaluation, the object being SELF-TRAINING.

   The guide is therefore intended for individual use, like a self-training manual. But this in no way prevents it from being used collectively, for example in the context of training provided by inspectors and educational counsellors at meetings of school principals, or in the framework of training curricula formulated by Educational Science Institutes for the initial or in-service training of school principals.

7. This version of a practical guide, designed as an instrument of self-training in the form of a frame or matrix adaptable to each national situation, will be submitted for examination and opinion to all the national authorities of the Member States concerned, through the intermediary of the National Commissions for Unesco and the national correspondents of the Technical and Cultural Co-operation Agency (TCCA). This version will also be circulated for examination and opinion among the inter-governmental organizations concerned (European Communities, Council of Europe, ISESCO, etc.) as well as among non-governmental organizations (WCOTP, FIAI, FISE, Ecumenical Council if Churches, etc.).

   The opinions received before 30 November 1989 will be taken into account in a final version to be prepared before 31 December 1989.

8. During the first quarter of 1990, it is planned to hold a seminar organized jointly by TCCA and Unesco at the International School in Bordeaux. National authorities will be notified of this seminar by the National Commissions for Unesco and by the national correspondents of TCCA.

   The seminar proposes to bring together the Primary Education Directors of the Ministries of Education concerned in order to examine the projects formulated in connection with the extension of the Practical Guide for School Principals.

   A priori, this guide can give rise to four major types of projects:

   § The publication of a specific national guide.
   § A training plan for school principals.
   § Updating and collating of regulations.
   § The application of teaching and/or administrative innovations.

At the request of Member States, external financing for these projects may be sought through Unesco. They will naturally be covered by the contributions of Member States, Unesco, inter-governmental organizations, and sources of financing of International Literacy Year, and more particularly the World Conference in Bangkok on the generalization of basic education.

9. Subsequently, Unesco plans to publish a practical guide applicable to cultural contexts other than that of French-speaking Africa.

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INTRODUCTION

FOR WHOM IS THIS GUIDE INTENDED?

1. This methodological guide to educational administration and management is intended especially for you, whether you are:

   § A recently appointed school principal.
   § A school principal with many years of experience.
   § The principal of a small rural school.
   § The principal of a large urban school.

2. This simple enumeration shows that it is not easy to define a primary school principal with accuracy. Would you be able to describe his profile? Formerly, the task of the school was to train future citizens by teaching them to read, write and count. Things then looked simple: the school principal was an experienced teacher familiar with the curriculum and with the teaching of the subjects. As a principal, he was promoted to the rank of a "bureaucrat" responsible for ensuring that the rules and regulations were observed, without having to take anyone else's opinions into account.

   This is obviously an over-simplified description, for the school principal's job was never as simple as that. But it must be recognized that his functions have expanded and become more complicated in recent years, and this evolution has been rapid.

   Nowadays, the school must ensure the satisfactory social and occupational integration of its pupils, only a minority of whom will go on to continue their studies at the secondary level. And parents have become more demanding on this point.

   The pedagogic role of the school principal is more important today than ever, but the way of performing it is quite different. Qualities of leadership are required to direct the work of the teaching staff; and the principal has to pay more attention to what pupils and parents have to say. Which is why he must be adept at human relations and be a good communicator, both within the school and between the school and its environment.

   The school principal is still judged on the basis of the results achieved by his pupils. He must know how to run his school, assign objectives for success, and do his best to ensure that those objectives are attained. Drop-outs and grade repetitions must be reduced, the percentage of examination successes must be increased. In addition, records and statistics must be kept up to date, and sociological surveys must be undertaken to discover the socio-occupational, ethnic and other categories to which the pupils belong. Satisfactory reports and forecasts must be made in order to ensure more effective

programming at higher levels of the educational hierarchy.

Besides being an educator, a leader and an administrator, the school principal has become a manager. He must preserve and enhance the patrimony of the school, efficiently organize the use of teaching materials, manage the resources of the school co-operative, keep a close eye on the school accounts, and even seek independent resources so as to improve the functioning of the school.

3. This variety of tasks and of situations explains why the school principal is sometimes designated by other names: headmaster, head teacher, etc.

   One hears it said: "Yesterday, the school principal was on a pedestal and his authority was uncontestable; today, he is right in the line of fire!".

   Today's school principal, to put it colloquially, wears several hats.

****

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS GUIDE?

1. The primary purpose of the guide is to help school principals in service. Most serving principals were appointed some years ago - in some cases many years ago - and their initial training often lies a long way in the past. Furthermore, some of them never received any specific training to prepare them for their job. In certain cases they were appointed on the recommendation of inspectors; in other countries it is the practice to select candidates on the basis of a competitive examination which sometimes consists of no more than an interview. It is only very recently that the need for would-be school principals to undergo pre-service training has been recognized.

2. The primary school is in the course of remarkably rapid and profound change, due to:

   § The extension of primary education.

   § A longer period of schooling.

   § The population explosion.

   § Changes in the social demand for education by parents.

   § An increase in enrolments, especially in urban areas, leading to large classes and often to two-shift working.

   § Changes in educational goals, resulting in new curricula, and even in the introduction of new subjects (national languages, productive work, population education, etc.).

   § The introduction of new teaching methods and new teaching materials (written material, text books, audio-visual aids, simple scientific apparatus, etc.).

   These changes are not in all cases immune to criticism, and the school must nowadays adopt new evaluation procedures in order to preserve its credibility.

   It may confidently be asserted that the coming decade will be characterized by a quest for a higher quality of teaching and an improvement in the functioning of the school.

3. Experience, confirmed by a considerable amount of recent research, shows that we are now better able to assess the quality of the education provided (in terms of drop-out and grade repetition rates, upward movement from one class to the next and from one stage of education to the next, examination successes, etc.) and we also have batteries of specific tests for measuring cognitive progress (especially in mathematics) and progress in written and oral expression.

   And we also know how to assess the influence of input factors on the results achieved. For example, written material such as text books is highly effective. But - and this is the point of this guide - it has been shown that the school principal has a determining influence on the results achieved where the quality of teaching is concerned.

   Among what are usually called "senior educational personnel" (inspectors, assistant inspectors, supervisors and the like) school principals have perhaps received the least attention, despite the fact that their contribution is positive and important. Ministries of Education have realized this, and they are to an increasing extent organizing pre-service training curricula for school principals in educational science institutes. And many inter-governmental organizations (such as Unesco, Isesco, the Council of Europe, OECD, the Cultural and Technical Co-operation Agency) find a very marked convergence of interest in the field of in-service training for school principals.

   For this reason the Unesco Programme for 1989-1990 includes, among other projects, the preparation of a methodological guide to educational administration and management.

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THE PRIORITIES OF THE GUIDE

1. The quest for improved standards of quality in education cannot be confined to the adoption of a more rigorous programming of enrolments, curricula, methods, and so on at the central level.

   The school principal is the final link in an educational chain extending from the central administration to the school itself, via intermediate links such as the inspectorate, the local, departmental, provincial or regional authority (the names vary from one country to another, depending on the administrative division of the territory).

   The task of ensuring a better functioning of the school is of such magnitude and complexity that the central administration must inevitably transfer new duties and responsibilities to intermediate levels, and ultimately to the lowest level of all, the school itself. Depending on the political organization of the country and its degree of centralization, the term used is either deconcentration (transfer of tasks alone) or decentralization (transfer of tasks and responsibilities).

   In either case, this means a broader scope of action for the school principal, who is at all times responsible to those in higher authority for the continuity of the duties assigned to him.

   He is thus faced with new administrative obligations. For example, the circulation of information in such a complex organization as the education system is an increasingly difficult task; there is a ceaseless demand for reports and statistical data. Visits by the inspector are intermittent, whereas the management of human resources (punctuality, conformity to the curriculum, the programming of timetables) and of material resources (teaching supplies, text books, etc.) is a day-to-day responsibility.

   Contacts have to be maintained with parents and with the environment; and very often, especially in rural areas, the school principal is involved in development projects.

   Though appointed by the education authorities, the school principal's moral authority derives from the confidence placed in him by teachers, pupils and parents more than from the authority vested in him by the inspectorate. He must therefore justify his authority; while he is

obliged to carry out the work assigned to him, he cannot really do so unless his authority is recognized, in particular by his teaching staff.

Thus the principal's administrative and management role takes precedence, to an increasing extent, over - and perhaps to the detriment of - his role as an educator, even though the latter role remains essential.

This guide takes these circumstances into account, placing emphasis as it does on the administrative and management aspects. How can the new responsibilities of the school principal be fully grasped, analysed and coped with? How can they be placed in order of importance? How can they be incorporated in the overall day-to-day job of the school principal, which involves numerous successive tasks requiring his working day to be divided among them compatibly - which is not always an easy matter?

2. While the guide gives precedence to administrative and management functions, without on that account neglecting educational functions, it must be remembered that the basis of everything the school principal does is the rules and regulations in force. But rules and regulations cannot be universal; they depend on national sovereignty and are specific to each country.

Since there can be no universal rules and regulations, there can be no unique guide valid for all cultural contexts and all countries.

Consequently this guide is a BROAD GENERAL OUTLINE or model which has to be adapted to each particular set of circumstances, whether it is used individually or collectively. In some cases, it may be adapted so as to produce a national version; in others, it can be used in its present form as a starting point for training programmes.

But it is essential to bear in mind right from the outset that the guide is not intended to be a compilation of rules and regulations, nor simply a set of possible solutions to practical problems.

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THE USE OF THE GUIDE

1. Numerous surveys have revealed the need for school principals to be suitably prepared in order to enable them to do their job efficiently. We shall give a specific example.

   A survey conducted in Togo in the early 1980s among school principals revealed that:

   42% knew what their job required of them (while 58% did not).

   40% considered that they did their job adequately (while 60% admitted to "shortcomings").

   31.7% considered that they were not sufficiently sure of themselves.

   In other words, more than half of the school principals concerned confessed to certain shortcomings.

   Among the desiderata expressed were:

   § More thorough general training and instruction (22%).

   § More teaching practice and supervision (20%).

   § More administrative and legislative back-up (15%).

   Other replies (1% to 6%) concerned the teaching of subject matter.

   This guide proposes to help to solve the problems encountered, having systematic recourse to <u>self-instruction</u>.

2. The guide contains self-instructional material, including information and examples drawn from existing situations, mostly in French-speaking Africa but also in other regions. These situations are described in published reports and books; the sources are listed in Appendix I.

   When the guide is used collectively, for example at a meeting of school principals organized by the inspector, or at a further training session led by a teacher educator, the information contained in the guide can be suitably adapted and the examples can be modified so as to take the national context into account.

3. However the guide is used - individually or collectively, as it stands or in a modified national edition - the main aim is to enable the school principal to see his day-to-day work in objective perspective.

This objective perspective is neccesary for the purpose of self-analysis, which in no way relates to the evaluation and control exercises presented; it simply raises questions leading to a self-evaluation.

When an exercise is proposed, the main point is not the correct answering of the questions, but the triggering of interpellations leading either to a change of attitude or to the adoption of a new approach to check whether it is better adapted to the local situation. Thus the interpellation should give rise to an attempt to do things in a different way.

Undoubtedly, individual use is the more difficult, and the help of an inspector or a teacher educator is always an advantage. But this does not mean that one should overlook the contribution that can be made by a freely-organized get-together of principals of neighbouring schools, whether regular (once a month, for example) or occasional (one principal consulting another when faced with a doubt or an unresolved difficulty, for instance).

****

THE CONTENTS OF THE GUIDE

The guide is in three parts

1. The first part deals with the administrative role of the school principal.

   1.1. In order to conform to rules and regulations, the school principal must be thoroughly conversant with them. A knowledge of laws, decrees, instructions and regulations enables him to deal with a great many practical matters: files, registers, records, accounts, applications, reports, etc. Each of these matters may be dealt with in different ways from one country to another, depending on the education system.

   To cover these administrative matters, the guide has adopted a number of entries in the form of key words, with regard to each of which questions are put. The replies must be sought in the regulations, and entered in the space provided (see example page 1).

   This can be completed, in the second box at the bottom of the page, by a precise indication of the reference of the principal texts (e.g. circular n° 288 of 14.10.1987).

   1.2. From the regulations can be deduced an enumeration of the legal duties of the school principal.

   1.3. The study of these regulations and duties enables the principal to see them in a certain perspective, so as to:

   - analyse the situation of his school.
   - analyse his own way of dealing with situations arising.

   This objective view and this self-analysis are essential to enable the principal to assess his margin of freedom in coping effectively with a given situation.

2. The second part of the guide concerns not only the duties of the school principal as a servant of the administration, but also his attributions as an administrator of an educational community. The difficulty that often arises here is to find a local solution to the adoption of a national directive.

The following points are examined successively:

§ Management and administration.
§ Leadership and training.
§ Evaluation and control.
§ Public relations.

3. The third and final part of the guide deals with the school principal considered as a "protagonist in development" and as an "agent of change". It contains examples of national directives and of innovations in various local situations designed to encourage the adoption and implementation of a "SCHOOL PROJECT".

4. Throughout these three parts, the emphasis is on the growing importance for the school principal of more efficient management and administration in order to improve the functioning of the school as a whole.

   The administrative and management role is admittedly taking precedence, to a certain extent, over the more purely educational aspects of the school principal's job. In almost all countries, the principal used to teach in his school as well as running it. This teaching role nowadays subsists only in small schools (for example, there are some one-class rural schools in which the teacher is also the principal). In larger schools the principal does not normally teach, though he may very often have to replace an absent teacher. In very large schools, he does not teach at all.

   Besides becoming more important, the administrative role changing in nature. The principal is bound to take account of a democratic evolution giving teaching staff as a whole, and even local protagonists, a greater involvement in decision-making.

   The principal is becoming a team leader, in charge of encouraging and directing groups, and in that capacity he must acquire skills in human relations so as to be able to resolve conflicts. Local protagonists, parents, and the local community in general are "partners", and need to be kept informed, which brings the school principal into a new field, that of public relations.

   The school no longer confines itself to providing instruction; it co-operates to an increasing extent with other sectors of the community in preparing young people for social, family and working life. The school principal is often called upon to co-operate with local authorities connected with other ministries or inter-ministerial bodies.

The introduction of new curricula in connection with radical reforms involves the adoption of new methods. The teaching becomes less teacher-centred and more pupil-centred (1). The concept of "educational technology" (2) is gradually gaining ground, with a more rational use of personnel, resources and materials. The pooling of resources, team work, and the quest for optimal utilization of available resources mean that administrative work and teaching work are becoming more and more imbricated.

The school principal is now becoming a veritable key figure, the privileged channel through which any specific measure aimed at improving the quality of education is introduced. When this role exists and is recognized, the school principal will be required to take initiative and to implement innovatons.

<u>This guide will, it is hoped, help you to cope with these multiple tasks</u>.

(1) Pupil-centred teaching means that the teacher's principal centre of interest is the pupil, and not the subject taught. Not only must the teacher put over his subject, he must also bear the profile of his pupils constantly in mind.

(2) Educational technology is the optimal scientific and rational combination of all available educational resources: the teacher, the classroom, the pupils, the text books, the blackboard, and teaching aids. By combining these resources, alternative strategies can be worked out, and those producing the best results can be adopted.

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PART ONE

THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS A REPRESENTATIVE OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE AUTHORITY

I. Familiarity with the regulations is of prime importance.

II. Possibilities and limits of the official regulations.

I. FAMILIARITY OF THE REGULATIONS IS OF PRIME IMPORTANCE

Regulations are issued by the Central Administration from time to time, in the light of problems encountered. They are published, in chronological order, in the appropriate official journal.

These texts are added to from year to year, so that the regulations not only become more abundant but also more complex. The school principal constantly needs to refer to them even though there does not always exist a "compilation of laws and regulations" listing them by subject matter.

Furthermore, as we have already pointed out, since the legislation is specific to each region and each country, it is impossible to sum them up in a universally applicable form.

It is suggested, therefore, that you yourself (1) prepare a synthesis of the regulations in force in your country. This will be useful for at least three purposes:

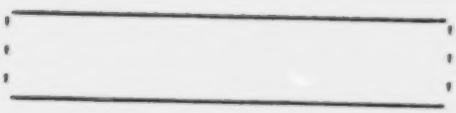
- for your own use, so that you may make decisions advocated by the regulations;
- for the information of teachers, who may want to know the reason for this or that procedure or decision;
- for the information of parents and of those outside the school, who always wish to be better informed about the functioning of the school.

A list (which is not exhaustive) of "key words" corresponding to these specific fields of action of the school principal has been prepared. For each of these key words and fields, some questions are put; you do not have to answer them precisely and in detail, but you are asked to enter, in the upper box provided, an overall summing up of the regulation concerning the field in question. These questions are intended simply to enable you to give thought to the multiple aspects of the field in question.

The small lower box is reserved for the identification of the principal texts whose references you know.

(1) Alone or collectively, at training meetings or sessions.

Specimen-page



* "key word" defining the principal's field of intervention.

_____ .....
_____ ....
_____ .....

questions enabling you to demarcate the subject and to give thought to all aspects of the field of intervention concerned.

Box in which you are requested not to answer the questions, but to enter a brief summing up of the regulations in force relating to the field of intervention considered.

Do not worry if you cannot make such a summing up; if you cannot, note the problem and subsequently seek the solution:

- by consulting the compilation of laws and regulations,
- by questioning the principal of the neighbouring school the next time you have contact with him,
- by asking the inspector or one of his assistants when he visits your school or when you have to visit the headquarters of the Inspectorate.

Lower box in which you are requested, if you can, to indicate the references of the principal regulations relating to the field of intervention considered (circular, decree, etc.).

The key words adopted are as follows (not necessarily in order of importance):

Accidents
Reception, registration and grading of pupils
Pre-emptive education
Out-of-school activities and extra-curricular activities
Adult activities
Teaching aids
Assistance for teaching staff
Parents' Associations
Insurance
Administrative career
Teachers' Council
School Council
Control, evaluation and monitoring of teachers
School co-operative
Pupils' distinctions, rewards and sanctions
Teachers' distinctions, rewards and sanctions
Timetable
Problem children
Weak and handicapped pupils
Examinations
Financial resources
In-service training of teachers
Teaching schedules
Additional indemnities and remunerations
Innovation, experimentation
Appointment and induction of teaching staff
Outside collaborators
Twinning agreements
Premises
Textbooks and supplies
Duties and obligations
Social services
Organization of the school year
Pupil guidance
Occupation of school premises outside school hours
Size of classes
Curricula and related instructions
Registers and records
Internal regulations
Relations between the school and parents
Relations with the Inspector
Relations with the Education Authorities
Relations with the local community
Relations with the immediate environment
Replacements
Discretionary obligations
Pupils' results

Occupational hazards
School health
Safety
School outings
Status of the school
Status of the teacher
Unions and professional associations
Productive work
In-school and out-of-school associations

The above key words by no means cover all aspects of the regulations, any more than do the questions posed.

No doubt you will find repetitions and cross-references, illustrating the complexity of the regulations.

ACCIDENTS

What procedure has to be followed when a pupil, a teacher, a parent or someone from outside is injured in an accident in the school? When and where did the accident occur? In the course of what activity? Who was in charge of that activity?

Is a distinction made between an accident at work and an accident occurring while proceeding to or from work?

Is there a standard accident declaration form? Who signs it? To whom is it sent?

Do the regulations make a distinction between civil responsibility and criminal responsibility?

RECEPTION, ENROLMENT AND GRADING OF PUPILS

Who enrols the pupils in the school? What conditions are required, and what documents have to be presented? (certificate of vaccination, certificate of residence, attestation of previous schooling, etc.)

Are there any derogations with regard to admission to primary school? Who grants them? On the basis of what criteria?

How are the pupils allocated to the different classes? Who allocates them? On the basis of what criteria?

How is reception organized?

Are school fees payable? Who fixes the amount? Who levies them? To what use are they put? Who administers them?

How are the reception and supervision of the pupils organized when they are present in the school outside school hours? (canteen, extra-curricular activities, prep work, etc.)

What is the period of compulsory schooling? What are the upper and lower age-limits?

Are the classes mixed (boys and girls)?

Is a school bus or other form of transport provided?

How is a pupil who has previously attended a private school received in a public school?

PRE-EMPTIVE EDUCATION

What view is taken of the role and mission of the school where pre-emptive education is concerned; for example:

- population education (demography, motherhood and childcare, migrations, Population-Resources-Environment-Development (PRED), sex education, birth control, etc.);
- safety education (road safety and safety in the home);
- combating pollution;
- combating the abuse of legal drugs (alcohol, tobacco, pharmaceuticals) and illicit drugs;
- combating transmissible sexual diseases;
- prevention of AIDS;
- civic and moral education.

What links have to be established in order to undertake concerted actions with other institutions? Is it possible to call upon outside collaborators to participate in or encourage the creation of clubs to guide and help young people (health clubs, first aid clubs, safety clubs, etc.).

Do the regulations make provision for such activities, either for all pupils or for boys or girls specifically?

OUT-OF-SCHOOL AND EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

What activities can be organized for pupils outside school hours:
- canteen,
- leisure activities,
- clubs,
- workshops, etc.
- sports and competitive activities.

What extra-curricular activities directly connected with school work can be organized:
- educational outings,
- supervised or directed studies,
- back-up activities for weaker pupils.

Do the regulations make it compulsory to provide facilities for keeping pupils under supervision before the school opens and after it closes?

What problems of responsibility, organization, supervision and financing arise in connection with these activities? How can they be coped with? With what resources (internal or external to the education system)?

When an activity is introduced, is it compulsory or not? On what criteria can the choice be based, and who decides?

ADULT ACTIVITIES

What could and should be the role of the contribution of the school in out-of-school activities available to former pupils, parents, and adults in general? The school can make its infrastructure and facilities available. Human resources can be solicited and put to use. The school may also play an important role in disseminating information concerning this or that activity.

Is any priority laid down by the regulations, by the inspector, or by the local authorities in respect of:

- literacy training,
- combating illiteracy,
- health and social education,
- development activities (economic projects),
- cultural and sporting activities,
- religious instruction,
- debating societies.

What links have to be established with the various protagonists outside the school when the school is involved in such activities? What is the role of the principal?

Are these activities covered by the same regulations (with regard to responsibility, supervision, organization, upkeep, etc.) as those covering extra-curricular and out-of-school activities?

PARENTS' ASSOCIATIONS

Is the Parents' Association tolerated, encouraged, or compulsory?

Is the school principal authorized to encourage or set up a Parents' Association?

What must be the status of the Association? How are its officers appointed (president, treasurer, secretary)?

What is the role of the Parents' Association: to promote relations between the school and parents in order to establish better communication? To take charge of the acquisition or maintenance of teaching materials? To take part in the annual school fete? To be represented on the School Council?

INSURANCE

Are the pupils insured? If so, is the insurance recommended or compulsory? If not, how do the parents discharge their civil responsibility?

Does the school propose an insurance policy to parents? If so, who proposes it? Who collects the premiums? How is the responsibility of the teacher covered? Is there a compulsory or optional insurance for teachers? Or for non-teaching staff?

Is the State its own insurer? Are there nevertheless some items which must be insured? By whom?

What declarations, reports or forms must the principal complete in these various cases?

ADMINISTRATIVE CAREER

Is the title of school principal an administrative grade or an office?

What is the principal's wage-scale?

What are his retirement conditions?

What are his compulsory retirement pension contributions and deductions from salary?

What are the procedures of promotion and of posting?

Are schools classed according to the number of classes or pupils? Does the principal receive an indemnity of administrative responsibility whose amount various with the category or size of the school?

What is the procedure in the case of temporary suspension of a school principal or a teacher (motive, duration, to whom application is made, etc.).

TEACHERS' COUNCIL

What provisions do regulations make for the periodical meeting of the school principal and the teachers in a "Teachers' Council" or a "Teachers' Collective"?

- Who chairs the meeting?
- Who convenes it?
- How often?
- Who fixes the agenda?
- Who takes the minutes or notes the conclusions?

What are the attributions of the Council? Are they laid down by the regulations? Can the principal assign powers or decisions to the Council which are not covered by the regulations? (For example, the formulation of, or additions to, the internal regulations; criteria of grading pupils; playground supervision; choice of textbooks, if this is not imposed; choice of books in the school library; extra-curricular or out-of-school activities; lending of the school premises outside school hours, and/or during vacations; number and quantity of items which families are required to supply; in-service training and educational leadership; school projects; etc.).

Does the Council vote indicatively, or is it a deliberative assembly? To whom are its conclusions communicated? In case of disagreement on an administrative or educational problem which comes within the orbit of the Teachers' Council, is there an arbitration procedure, and how does it operate?

SCHOOL COUNCIL

Do the regulations provide for a body grouping, in addition to the principal and the teachers, the Inspector, the local authority, representatives of the community, the representatives of the Parents' Association, and other leading local figures? (this does not exist in all countries).

What are the attributions of this body? Is its main purpose to help the school? What precautions are taken, or need to be taken, to safeguard the educational autonomy of the school and prevent non-teaching members of the School Council from meddling in professional teaching matters?

How does the Council function? Who defines its composition, designates the participants, convenes the meetings, fixes the agenda, takes the minutes, and passes on its desiderata or requests?

If the regulations make no provisions for such a Council, can the school principal set up a body of the same type in order to facilitate the dissemination of information on the school and establish better communication between the school and its environment? What precautions must he take (request for authorization, specification of its consultative and non-deliberative nature, etc.)?

CONTROL, EVALUATION AND MONITORING OF TEACHERS

How are responsibilities shared between the school principal and the primary school inspector in the control and monitoring of the work of teachers? Is the principal competent to back up the Inspector in this category of tasks?

How independent are the teachers of the principal?

What use does the principal make of his observations on the presence, punctuality and work of the teachers, and on disciplinary problems or the results achieved by their pupils? What ways and means does he have to intervene in these various fields?

What body can arbitrate in case of a conflict between the principal and a teacher (Teachers' Council, Inspector, etc.)?

SCHOOL CO-OPERATIVE

What are the formalities for setting up a school co-operative?

How can the pupils participate in the running of the school co-operative?

Is there a standard set of regulations governing the school co-operative with regard to its organization, funding, the nature of its activities, the use to which it is put, and the management of its resources?

Is the school principal necessarily responsible for the co-operative?

Who, in the school, is in possession of:

- the regulations,
- the authorization of the Inspector (if necessary),
- the list of members,
- the records of conclusions and decisions,
- the accounts,
- the inventory?

Can the funds of the co-operative be allocated to the running of the school? Under what conditions?

PUPILS' DISTINCTIONS, REWARDS AND SANCTIONS

What steps have to be taken in the case of a pupil's unjustified and repeated absences, noted by the teacher, and persisting after the parents have been informed?

By what ways and means can the teacher and the principal inculcate in every pupil a behaviour compatible with social life in the school and conforming to the internal regulations?

Is corporal punishment forbidden? What sanctions does a teacher or a principal who strikes a pupil risk incurring?

How are pupils encouraged (good marks, inscription on the honour roll, congratulations, prizes, etc.)?

How can a pupil at fault be punished? In what case is it necessary to convene a council of discipline? Who can order the temporary or permanent expulsion of a pupil from the school?

TEACHERS' DISTINCTIONS, REWARDS AND SANCTIONS

What sanctions can be taken against a teacher in whom inadequacies are observed:

- unjustified lateness or absence,
- inability to control his class,
- inability to teach through lack of knowledge or for reasons of health.

Is there an ascending scale of sanctions:

- warning,
- reprimand,
- temporary suspension on full salary,
- temporary suspension without pay,
- dismissal.

How can the principal assess the teacher's work? Assiduity, punctuality, class results, acceptance of tasks over and above duties laid down by the regulations, etc.?

In what documents is this assessment recorded (annual assessment or rating report, classroom inspection report, specific report, etc.)?

What is the importance of the school principal's opinion in order that the teacher may obtain:

- promotion,
- an honorary distinction,
- a posting at his request.

TIMETABLE

Who determines the daily and weekly timetables? (Times of entering and leaving the school, movement between classes, recreation periods, etc.). What authority has the principal to modify these timetables for a given period, for valid reasons (repair work, local fete, etc.)? Is transport provided specifically for the pupils (school bus, etc.)?

What authority has the school principal to require his staff to undertake additional activities outside school hours (supervision of pupils, canteen duty, prep periods, out-of-school or extra-curricular activities, sports club, etc.)? Are certain of these activities remunerated? By whom? Who controls and manages them?

What authority has the principal to organize activities in his school bringing together pupils from different classes and/or levels, such as sports, choir practice, remedial classes, back-up for pupils in difficulty, etc.?

Who decides whether the school, or a given class in the school, or a given teacher, shall participate in a local ceremony?

Are there specific rules concerning the organization of the teaching of certain subjects (civic or political instruction, religious instruction, etc.)?

Is provision made for certain pupils to be excused from a given activity? Who makes the decision?

PROBLEM CHILDREN

What decision must be taken when a teacher refuses to keep a pupil in his class, for disciplinary reasons, or because the presence of a handicapped pupil interferes with the work of the class?

What is the procedure for the expulsion of a pupil?

What relations must be maintained between the school and the law?

Must the principal be present when a pupil is questioned by the police?

What is the approach to be adopted when a pupil is suspected of taking drugs?

How can the principal or the Teachers' Council make approaches to pupils' families in case of violent behaviour?

WEAK AND HANDICAPPED PUPILS

Are any special arrangements made for handicapped pupils (apart from putting them into specialized schools)?

Is the principal authorized to organize, in his school, back-up activities or remedial groups for the weaker pupils? How is this done? With what human and financial resources?

How are severely handicapped pupils (those with visual, hearing and motor defects, etc.) directed and admitted to specialized schools?

Are there any special procedures for admitting a handicapped pupil to a normal class? What are the rules with regard to integration?

EXAMINATIONS

How does a pupil move up from one class to the next? In what cases does this involve an examination? Who organizes it?

Who organizes the examination on the completion of primary schooling?

Is the supervision of examinations part of the compulsory duties of the teachers? Do they receive an indemnity or remuneration for it?

What steps must the principal take if his school is designated as an examination centre?

FINANCIAL RESOURCES

What are the school's financial resources, and who administers them?

Annual budget:
- annual operating budget.
- exceptional subsidy for supplies and facilities.

Self-generated resources;
- school fees,
- services provided (rental of premises, etc.),
- resources derived from productive work,
- supervision, extra-curricular activities,
- rebate or commission on the purchase of supplies, textbooks, or pupils' insurance policies,
- collections, subscriptions, tombolas, annual fete.

Budget of the school co-operative

Budget of the canteen.

Who administers these various resources?

IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Are there any regulations concerning the in-service training of teachers? Is this training compulsory? Is it provided in specialized training centres?

Who selects the teacher for an in-service training course? Is he a voluntary candidate, or is he designated by the principal or the Inspector? On the basis of what criteria? May the teacher in question refuse to attend such a course?

When a teacher leaves for a course, is he replaced?

When a teacher returns from a course, how can the principal help him to share what he has learned with his colleagues? How can he be helped to apply what he has learned in his classroom, and invite the other teachers to do the same?

What recommendations can the school principal make to his teachers concerning their further training (correspondence courses, applications to attend seminars proposed by the Inspector, subscription to an educational journal, follow-up and exploitation of lectures given by the Inspector, organization of an educational library in the school, etc.)?

Can the principal organize collective training in his school (for example, set aside one half day a month for a model lesson given by one of the teachers, which is observed and discussed by all his colleagues)?

Can the principal make a request for his school to receive future teachers under training? Under what conditions?

TEACHING SCHEDULES

How many hours of teaching a week must the school principal provide?

On the basis of what criteria (number of classes, number of pupils, etc.) may the principal be permitted to reduce the number of teaching hours, or be completely absolved from teaching?

Is the principal required to replace a teacher in the case of occasional absence?

Who, apart from a principal, may be allowed a reduction in the number of hours of teaching; for what reasons, and under what procedure?

Is overtime teaching work remunerated? Who allots and controls such remuneration?

ADDITIONAL INDEMNITIES AND REMUNERATIONS

What indemnities may the school principal and teachers claim for:

- travel,
- accommodation,
- administrative responsibilities,
- supervision (canteen, examinations, prep periods, etc.),
- out-of-school and extra-curricular activities.

Is the teacher allowed to perform other paid work apart from his teaching duties? Within what limits? Is there any regulation concerning the total amount of the teacher's remunerations? What is the total amount authorized?

What are the existing arrangements concerning private lessons or small remedial classes paid for by parents? Are they authorized, or tolerated? May they take place in the school premises outside normal classroom hours?

INNOVATION, EXPERIMENTATION

May the school principal carry out experiments and introduce innovations? Are there any regulations in this respect, and is prior authorization required? Who must be informed?

If innovation and experimentation are encouraged, but subject to no particular regulations, what precautions must be taken? What information must be supplied, and to whom? How can internal conflicts be resolved if a teacher refuses to accept an innovation or an experiment proposed by the principal?

APPOINTMENT AND INDUCTION OF TEACHING STAFF

How is the school principal recruited and appointed?

Is there an official procedure of induction (who installs the principal in his post, and must the fact be formally recorded and signed by the Inspector)?

Does the newly appointed principal have to introduce himself to the Inspector, the local authority, etc.?

What is the role of the principal in receiving and installing a newly appointed teacher in his school?

How can the principal help the new teacher to take up his duties and fit in with the educational team?

After how many years of service in a given school may a principal or a teacher request a posting to a different school? What are the posting procedures?

What are the regulations concerning promotion?

OUTSIDE COLLABORATORS

Under what conditions may the school principal recruit outside help for certain activities (parents who volunteer for certain tasks or who take responsibility for workshops in the evening, or persons competent to give talks to the pupils on certain subjects)?

What steps can the principal take to ensure that he is consulted before he is faced with a fait accompli where outside collaboration is concerned?

Is the presence of adults in the school authorized? By whom? What is the principal's responsibility in this respect? Is a distinction made between activities covered by the regulations (attendance at a meeting of parents organized by the principal, or participation in an activity of the parents' association), out-of-school or extra-curricular activities (parents helping in the preparation of the fete at the end of the school year, or directing sporting or cultural activities after classroom hours) and teaching activities proper (a parent invited to give a talk to pupils in the presence of a teacher, or a parent authorized to replace an absent teacher for a limited period of time, etc.)?

What can be done to ensure the neutrality of the school?

Can parents help in out-of-school activities (for example, supervise an educational outing)?

TWINNING AGREEMENTS

With what formalities and procedures must the school principal conform if he wishes to twin his school:

- with another school in the same country?
- with a neighbouring industrial or commercial organization?
- with a foreign school?

What mutual commitments does a twinning agreement involve? Is the principal authorized to enter into such commitments himself? Should the authorization of the Inspectorate be obtained, and in many cases, the agreement of the local authorities?

PREMISES

Who is responsible for the construction and maintenance (major repairs) of the school premises? Who is responsible for day-to-day maintenance?

How is the janitorship organized? Who holds the keys?

What is the normal procedure regarding outside walls and fences, and sanitary facilities?

What are the responsibilities of the various people concerned when non-educational activities take place in the school (elections, fetes, adult activities, etc.)? What are the responsibilities of these people with regard to the maintenance of the premises?

How are things organized when the school comprises a main building and annexes?

Who is authorized to lend the school premises? In such cases, can an agreement be reached defining the responsibility and participation of the people who use the premises outside school hours?

Who owns the land? What are the regulations concerning land ownership?

Who provides housing for the principal and the teachers? How are water, electricity, telephone and similar bills paid?

TEXTBOOKS AND SUPPLIES

What are the arrangements concerning the acquisition of supplies and textbooks by pupils? Who bears the cost? How are the funds obtained from the school's own sources (school co-operative, petty cash fund, parents' association, etc.)?

Who determines the amount and nature of the supplies with which each pupil must be provided (exercise books, slate, pencils, ruler, etc.)? Who selects the textbooks?

Are there any regulations or standards concerning the supplies and textbooks which each pupil at each level of the primary school must possess?

Is there a school library? (Or a local library or a mobile library?) How is it maintained and added to?

What is the allocation of books and supplies for the school itself (chalk, teacher's manuals, registers, etc.)?

Is there an annual prize day? Who purchases the books distributed as prizes?

DUTIES AND OBLIGATIONS

What are the regulations concerning the following points:

Number of teaching hours per week of the principal and the teachers.

Hours of attendance of the principal and teachers.

Co-ordination of teaching activities and out-of-school and extra-curricular activities (additional remuneration and voluntary work).

Compulsory activities (Teachers' Council, quarterly scrutiny of results of each class, etc.).

Activities delegated by the principal to certain teachers (co-operative, Unesco Club, etc.).

Authorization and justification of absences.

Replacement of teachers on leave. Replacement of the principal during short absences.

Possibility of part-time work.

Duties and obligations of other categories of personnel (service, maintenance, canteen workers, administrative assistant, etc.).

SOCIAL SERVICES

Are national, provincial or local grants or scholarships available to pupils?

Are there "emergency funds" available to teachers and pupils at different administrative levels?

Is there a "school fund"? What is its role and resources?

Are vacation, leisure and health-care centres provided for teachers?

Are holiday camps or centres provided for young children during school holidays?

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL YEAR

What are the norms concerning the following points:

- School opening and closing dates,
- Dates and duration of school holidays,
- Division of the school year into two semesters or three quarters,
- Number of teaching posts, classes and levels of education,
- Teaching structure of the school,
- Spreading of the curriculum over the school year,
- Allocation of classes and timetables,
- Early return of teachers after school holidays, by comparison with pupils,
- Extra-curricular and out-of-school activities,
- Theme days,
- Examinations,
- Tasks assigned to certain teachers (co-operative, Teachers' Council, workshops, sports associations, etc.).

PUPIL GUIDANCE

What are the regulations concerning the following points:

Holding of the secondary school entrance examination,

Guidance and screening of pupils not admitted to secondary school:

- grade repetition
- vocational training
- conventional apprenticeship,
- active employment

To what extent can the school back up and follow up those who directly enter apprenticeship or employment?

OCCUPATION OF SCHOOL PREMISES OUTSIDE SCHOOL HOURS

What authorization is necessary and what are the conditions of occupation of the school premises for extra-curricular and adult activities such as workshops, clubs, private lessons, etc.?

How is the supervision organized and what are the responsibilities of the different people concerned?

What authorization is necessary and what are the conditions of occupation of the school premises during school holidays? How is agreement reached with the users, specifying responsibilities and commitments? Are there safety instructions which should be communicated to temporary occupants in such cases?

SIZE OF CLASSES

How is the forecast of enrolments for the coming year established? To whom is it communicated, and how is it discussed?

Is a statistical survey conducted every year after the beginning of the school year? What conclusions can be drawn from comparison with enrolments in previous years? Is it possible, and under what conditions, to deduce trends and to extrapolate them to future years?

Is there a minimum number of pupils for a class to be formed and a teacher to be appointed to it? Is there a maximum number of pupils per class beyond which the class is duplicated?

How can additional teaching posts be allocated?

Are you familiar with trends and forecasts concerning the opening of new schools and the modification of existing schools in the coming years; what is called "school mapping"?

CURRICULA AND RELATED INSTRUCTIONS

How are you informed (and are you able to pass on information to your teachers) of detailed curricula by level and subject matter, and their accompanying instructions?

Do you possess a set of instructions concerning the teaching of different subjects: methods to be employed, materials recommended, timetable to be set, final objectives to be attained?

Do you make a distinction between the term curriculum in its French sense (the content of studies and the step-by-step organization of their teaching) and curriculum in its English sense (which embraces not only content but also instructions, methods and teaching materials necessary to attain the objectives set)?

How do you organize the timetable so as to allow for compulsory subjects and optional subjects? And for religious instruction, when it is provided for in the curriculum?

What administrative documents must you have permanently available in the school (or which you may consult at the Inspectorate) to inform teachers and parents about the curriculum?

REGISTERS AND RECORDS

What registers and records must be carefully kept up to date:

By the pupils:
- personal exercise books,
- exercise book containing details of lessons and homework,
- mark book,
- correspondence book (for liaison with parents)

By the teachers:
- attendance register,
- record of day-to-day work,
- preparation book,
- record file or record book of each pupil,
- record of medical examinations

By the school principal:
- school roll,
- roll of teachers,
- inventory record,
- record of Teachers' Council and School Council,
- register of Parents' Association,
- co-operative record,
- record of in-coming and out-going mail,
- file of administrative directives and notes,
- reports (quarterly, annual, statistical, administrative surveys, etc.),
- school archives.

INTERNAL REGULATIONS

Are the internal regulations of the school compulsory? Who establishes them? Is there a standard set of regulations indicating their desirable form and content?

Do the internal regulations have to be submitted to the Teachers' Council, either for approval or for information?

How must these regulations be communicated (posted up, sent to the Parents' Association, etc.)?

Should these regulations include in particular:

- the procedure in case of the absence of teachers or pupils,
- prohibitions,
- sanctions and encouragements,
- the neutrality of activities within the school,
- possibilities of appeal (for example, request for arbitration by the Inspector) in case of disagreement or dispute concerning the application of the regulations.

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND PARENTS

What information must the school principal communicate to parents?

In what form? What media of communication or of dialogue are compulsory or recommended:

- certificate of school attendance,
- attestation of school attendance,
- record of marks,
- correspondence book,
- exercise books countersigned by parents,
- individual convocation of parents,
- periodical meeting of parents (by class, by level, by neighbourhood)
- creation of a parents' association,
- organization of 'open days',
- organization of an annual fete.

RELATIONS WITH THE INSPECTOR

What decisions or proposals must be submitted by the school principal to the primary school inspector? :

- the educational organization of the school (levels, classes, etc.),
- the allocation of teachers to different classes,
- expected and actual enrolments,
- approval of the internal regulations.

What reports must the principal communicate to the inspector? :

- quarterly reports, annual report, report at the commencement of the school year,
- statistics,
- record of the conclusions of staff meetings,
- minutes of the meetings of the Parents' Association,
- report attached to a request for inspection (of a teacher, a school, etc.), or to a request for promotion or sanction.

What is the Inspector's role vis-a-vis that of the school principal? How can the principal, who is permanently present in the school, follow up and extend the work of the Inspector, who makes only intermittent visits?

Is the school principal entitled to pre-paid postage for administrative mail?

How can a given problem be submitted to the Inspector (notification of pupils who must be placed in a specialized school; meeting of the disciplinary board, etc.)?

RELATIONS WITH THE EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

Apart from the Inspector, on what nearest educational administrative centre does the school depend? How is this centre organized?

In conjunction with what departments must the principal work more particularly? :

- the department responsible for primary education,
- the personnel department,
- the department of teaching materials,
- the examination department.

Does the school have an operating budget? Who administers it? To what authority must application be made, either directly or through the Inspector, for the purchase of teaching materials and supplies, or for a major repair to school premises?

What is the procedure for the forming or closing of classes? for the replacement of an absent teacher?

What are the rules concerning administrative correspondence (must all mail pass through the Inspector)?

At a higher level than the nearest administrative centre, what is the organization of the education system and of the Ministry of Education?

RELATIONS WITH THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

What is the organization of the local community?

Who determines the geographical boundaries for the enrolment of pupils?

How does the community contribute to the life of the school? :

- maintenance of the premises,
- operating budget,
- school furniture,
- teaching materials and supplies,
- housing for the principal and teachers,
- library (either the school library or the local public library),
- prizes awarded to the best pupils.

How does the community participate in the life of the school (presence in the School Council, when such exists; periodical visit by the principal to the administrative or other authority; participation of the community in certain events such as 'open days', fetes, etc.)?

RELATIONS WITH THE IMMEDIATE ENVIRONMENT

What role can the school principal play and what initiatives can he take in establishing and maintaining relations with the environment? :

- knowledge of the human and material resources of other bodies depending on other ministerial departments (health, culture, youth and sport, agriculture, the status of women, etc.). Is it possible to establish special relationships and agreements for the exchange of premises or services? Can recourse be had to some of these bodies for extra-curricular, out-of-school and adult activities?
- Knowledge of the economic sector (agriculture, handcrafts, industry, etc.), and of the possibility of relationships and exchanges, as well as the occupational guidance of pupils when they leave school.
- Local, provincial and national back-up centres able to provide educational support (teacher training college, documentation centre, institute of educational sciences, national pedagogic institute, etc.).

What links can be established with local clubs and associations? Is it possible for the school to set up new clubs (for sport, literacy training, etc.)?

What links can be established with international organizations which can be contacted locally or at the national level (UNICEF, Unesco, ACCT, etc.)?

What links must the school principal establish with the kindergarten (if there is one) and with the educational institution which some pupils enter after the completion of their primary schooling?

REPLACEMENTS

Is the school principal obliged to replace an absent teacher, or are his pupils shared among the other teachers?

What arrangements must the principal make when he has to absent himself for a very short period? For one day? For a longer period (sick leave, attendance at a course, etc.)?

How is the replacement system organized at the level of the school (procedures laid down in the internal regulations)?

In what circumstances may the principal apply to the Inspector or to the administrative centre on which the school depends in order to obtain a replacement for an absent teacher?

Is the principal authorized to adopt makeshift solutions (recourse to former pupils, temporary recruitment of a teaching assistant, etc.)? If so, what are the responsibilities of the replacement laid down by the school principal, and how is the replacement financed?

DISCRETIONARY OBLIGATIONS

What are the discretionary obligations of the school principal? And of the teachers?

What sanctions (warning, reprimand, dismissal, etc.) can be taken against the school principal?

PUPILS' RESULTS

What is the role of the school principal in the evaluation of pupils' results?

- calculation of grade repetition, grade advancement and drop-out, by class and by level. Comparison of the figures over a period of several years,
- establishment of the pupil throughput,
- annual discussion between the principal and each of the teachers on the class results (marks, quarterly results, grade advancements, grade repetitions, etc.),
- organization, where applicable, of examinations for advancement from one class to the next,
- recording and follow-up of examination results (admission to a higher level of education),
- issue of certificates or attestations by the school.

Is there a procedure enabling parents to appeal?

Is there any encouragement to set a quantified objective where results are concerned (percentage of successes to be attained)? What information does the principal have available for comparing the results achieved by his school with those achieved by neighbouring schools, and with the provincial and national averages?

OCCUPATIONAL HAZARDS

What steps does the school principal have to take if a teacher is the victim of verbal or written insults or threats, or physical violence?

How can it be established that insult, slander, or physical violence has occurred? What testimony must be attached to the principal's report to the Inspector?

If a teacher lodges a complaint concerning insult, slander or violence, what procedure must be followed by the principal? What internal body in the education system is responsible for defending the teacher who has been attacked?

On what motives may the principal - directly or in agreement with the Inspector - suspend a teacher from duty, either for his own protection, or to enable him to prepare his defence, or again - if it is the teacher who is in the wrong - to avoid further incidents of the kind?

SCHOOL HEALTH

What are the instructions concerning the physical health of pupils?

What relevant activities can be organized in the school (physical exercises) and may certain pupils be excused from taking part in them?

Are records of medical inspections kept, and does each pupil and each teacher have a medical record?

Are there any instructions concerning the early detection of defects in eyesight and hearing?

What steps are to be taken in the case of an epidemic (closure of the school, sick children obliged to stay at home, disinfection of the premises, etc.)?

What authorization must be obtained from the parents to transport a sick or injured pupil directly to a hospital or first aid centre?

What is the role of the social worker? Of the school psychologist? What procedures have to be followed in order to place a pupil in a specialized school or to allow him to remain in the school and receive back-up lessons?

See also pages 39 and 40

SAFETY

What are the instructions in case of an alarm? Where must they be posted up?

Are the pupils drilled in how to evacuate the premises in case of fire or other catastrophe?

What is the role of the safety commission, if such exists? Who is authorized to arrange its visit and its expert assessment?

What are the levels of responsibility in case of untoward incident or catastrophe?

Is the principal required to include questions of safety in his periodical reports, or must he make a special report on that subject?

SCHOOL OUTINGS

What requirements must be met in order that an outing may be organized?

- educational or cultural objectives,
- prior request and authorization,
- supervision and safety,
- whether the outing is compulsory or optional.

Are any special provisions made for outings at the end of the school year (sometimes organized for both pupils and their parents)?

STATUS OF THE SCHOOL

Does the school have the full status of a public establishment? If not, what is its status?

What governing functions are vested in the Inspectorate, the national educational administration, the local community, or the Parents' Association? What are the resulting obligations of the principal?

Comparison of the status of a public school with that of a private school.

STATUS OF THE TEACHER

What is the status of the teacher? Is he a servant of the school, of the decentralized administration, of the Ministry of Education, or of the State?

At what level are the teachers recruited (local, departmental, provincial or national)?

What guarantees does the teacher have by virtue of his status (civil servant, teaching assistant, trainee, local authority employee, etc.)?

UNIONS AND PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

What are the regulations concerning teachers' rights in the matter of holding meetings and membership of professional associations and unions?

Is provision made for authorized days of absences pertaining to the exercise of union rights? If the right to strike is recognized, by what regulations is it governed?

Are there parity commissions? At what level of the education system? What are their attributions? When do they meet? Are their members appointed or elected?

PRODUCTIVE WORK

What are the regulations governing productive work? :

- organization,
- nature of activities,
- age-limits,
- timetables,
- purchase of products,
- sale of products,
- allocation of resources.

See also page 42

ASSOCIATIONS

What associations are authorized within the school:

- school co-operative
- sports association
- cultural association.

What associations are authorized outside the school:

- parents' association
- old boys' and old girls' association
- Unesco Club, science club or cultural club.

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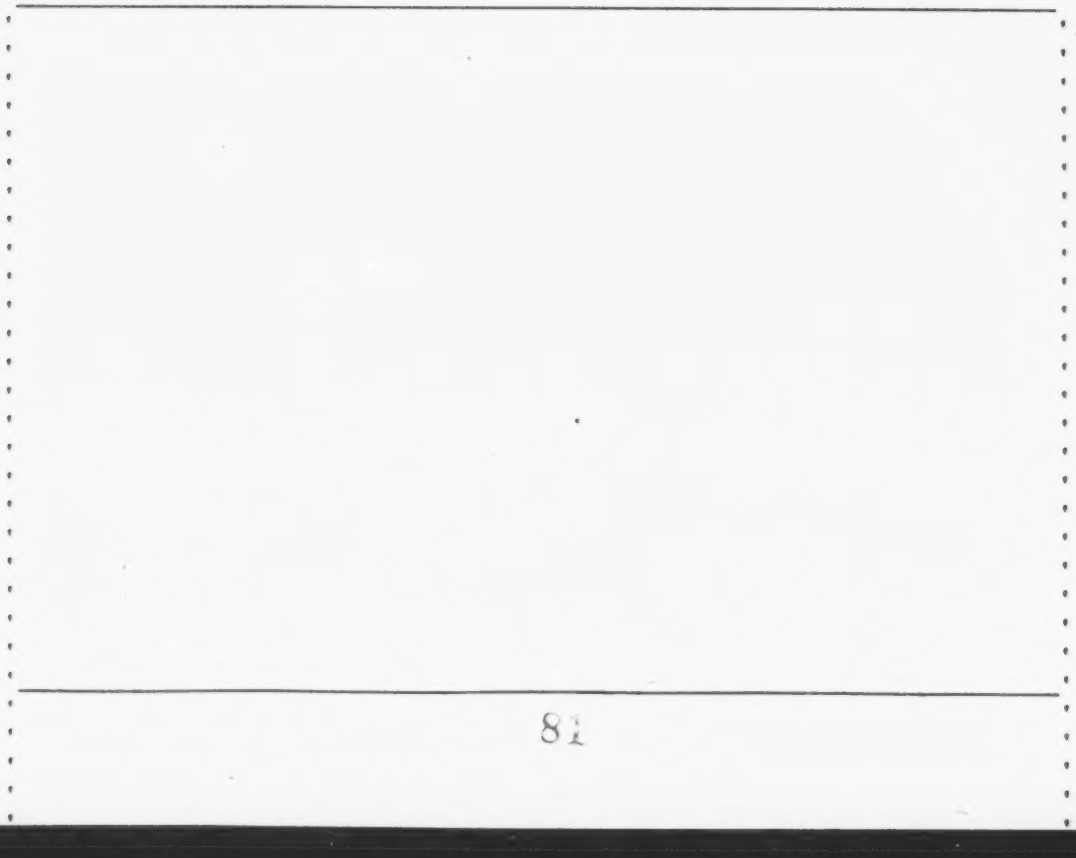

II. POSSIBILITIES AND LIMITS OF THE OFFICIAL REGULATIONS

II.1 In many cases, the official regulations offer only an approach to the solution of problems arising. In such cases it is necessary to find a local solution which does not contravene the rules laid down by the Central Administration.

Here are some examples of such situations, to which you should be able to respond without referring to a specific regulation:

- The teachers ask the principal for a better circulation of information with a view to greater "transparency".
- The local member of parliament asks the principal to give a talk, in a civic instruction lesson, on the elections currently being held.
- The Mayor complains to the principal about a teacher who is much criticized by parents.
- The Mayor proposes to erect an additional building, and asks the principal to prepare the plans; the Inspector is annoyed that the request was not addressed to him first of all,
- A parent brings strong pressure to bear on the principal to put his son into another class.
- A pupil's mother notifies the principal of persistent headaches and vomiting following a fall in the school playground the previous evening.
- A teacher firmly refuses to take part in the end-of-year fete.
- The Inspector asks the principal how he supervises the day-to-day sequence of events in the classroom, and what observations he makes to teachers in order that they exercise a better control over their pupils.
- An influential father promises the principal a promotion, or money, if the latter agrees to put his son into a higher class.
- The principal wishes to organize the first week of term in such a way as to put new pupils at their ease.

If the principal is familiar with the regulations, he can assess the margin of freedom they allow him, and act on his own initiative accordingly. Thus he has the opportunity of asserting his authority and extending his sphere of influence.

There is an order of importance in the regulations with which the principal should be familiar so as to determine what is essential and what is less so, and to distinguish between the spirit and the letter of this or that regulation. Generally speaking, the regulations carry all the more weight in proportion as their official source is representative and legitimate.

We may generally distinguish between the following types of regulations (this is merely an indication, for the situation varies from one country to another):

- general dispositions or guidelines, issued at the highest level of government, establishing the general framework of the education system and of reforms to be undertaken;

- laws, passed by parliament or its equivalent, which specify these reforms in detail and make them obligatory;

- decrees, promulgated by the government on the proposal of the Minister of Education and concerning the various levels of organization and defining the attributions of the principal administrative authorities concerned;

- decrees, promulgated by the Minister of Education, usually concerning personnel administration;

- circulars issued by departments of the Central Administration, giving details of this or that educational disposition;

- instructions or directives issued by the Inspectorate, often concerning methodological approaches and the application of curricula.

II.2 The volume of official regulations concerning the running of a school - which become more exhaustive and more complex every year - reflect the diversity of the duties and responsibilities assigned to the primary school principal.

As an example, we quote the regulations in force in Burundi in the context of the reform of primary education which was decided upon in 1973.

The attributions of School Principals are summed up as follows:

A. Educational leadership of a group of teachers:

1. ensuring conformity to the curricula;
2. ensuring that the curricula are applied in the correct sequence;
3. allotting supervisory activities in the school;
4. ensuring that all the teachers have the necessary material at their disposal (curriculum, distribution of subject matter, timetable, textbooks, attendance register, etc.);
5. helping inadequately trained personnel by being present at lessons and giving advice. The principal must serve as a model for all his teachers;
6. ensuring and facilitating the ongoing training of the teaching staff;
7. organizing and leading one-day and half-day refresher courses;
8. taking a class in the absence of a teacher.

B. Efficient administration

1. organizing the beginning of the school year;
2. recording events which happen in the life of the school;
3. taking stock of monthly and quarterly results, with the help of the teachers, at joint meetings of the latter;
4. preparing the reports at the beginning and the end of the school year;
5. ensuring that the relevant legislation is conformed to in his school;
6. monitoring and advising the teaching personnel.

C. Rational and economic management

1. establishing forecasts of requirements with regard to personnel and materials;
2. taking delivery of, and properly storing, educational and all other supplies (agricultural, sporting, artistic, technological) allotted to the school;

3. distributing these supplies and materials and avoiding wastage;
4. reporting the requirements of the school in respect of miscellaneous materials to the relevant authorities;
5. administering, in conjunction with parents, the assets resulting from the latter's efforts.
D. Leadership
1. acting as an interlocutor for his assistants, parents, and local administrative authorities;
2. participating in intersectoral community meetings concerning the school as an entity and each teacher as an educator;
3. bringing the school to the attention of the environment and creating conditions for mutual confidence between teachers and parents and interactions between the school and the environment.

These various attributions mean that the school principal has to perform a number of roles and tasks. Let us try to enumerate them:

1. The school principal acts as an educational counsellor :

   - He monitors the application of the curricula at different levels (content, sequence of subject matter, use of new methods, etc.).
   - He maintains good relations with the teachers and is responsible for an efficient organization of the work (curricula, balance of subjects, timetables, etc.).
   - He participates in the in-service training of teachers by inspecting the classes (checking the preparation of lessons, how the teacher handles the class, how the pupils' exercise books are kept, the sequence of teaching, etc.).
   - He can propose and introduce changes and innovations in his school. He can thus initiate educational projects which, after trial and evaluation, may be generally adopted in similar situations.

2. The school principal is an administrator :

   - He ensures liaison between the school and higher authorities. He represents the administrative educational authority at the local level.
   - He ensures conformance with educational legislation in force, and is entitled to comment upon the official regulations.

3. The school principal manages the day-to-day running of the school:

- He exercises control over educational supplies and materials, textbooks, and the library.
- He is responsible for the school premises and furniture, and for the running of the school co-operative.
- He manages human resources, ensuring the fair distribution of tasks among the personnel.
- When faced with shortages, as is often the case, he must notify his requirements and sometimes find his own resources to cope with the difficulties encountered.

4. The school principal is a social group leader :

- He takes an active part in the work of the Parents' Association.
- He liaises with the local authorities, and with specialists and others in local bodies (community development, sporting and cultural associations, etc.).
- He is a development agent, promoting liaison at all times between the school and its environment. In this capacity, he may be called upon to act as the spokesman or intermediary of the local community, especially in rural areas.

II.3. The Burundi example, and the roles listed above, clearly show that the regulations cannot provide for every eventuality. The school principal is not only the representative of higher authority, responsible for conforming to the legislation in force, he is also a leader, whose personal qualities include a sense of responsibility and a sense of human relations.

Research confirms this extension of the role of the school principal. The following table (1) shows the extent of this trend, in terms of behaviour:

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(1) Jeremy Greenland: The Role of the Headteacher in In-service Training. Unesco, 1983.

Administrator/Principal	Manager/Leader
1. Is concerned mainly with the application of, and compliance with, administrative regulations.	1. Sees the administration and organization of the school and the management of all its resources as means of ensuring the efficacity of the educational process.
2. Gives orders and checks that they are carried out, without asking the opinion of others.	2. Brings teachers and pupils into decision-making and encourages initiative.
3. Maintains individual relationships of a hierarchical type with his subordinates and convenes teachers and students only on official occasions or to inform them of administrative matters.	3. Facilitates 'horizontal' communication between colleagues and has regular recourse to group and committee work to analyse and solve the problems of the school and improve the way it functions.
4. Bases his authority on his superior rank.	4. Bases his authority on his personel prestige and his competence.
5. Supervises the work of subordinates in order to detect shortcomings and sanction them.	5. Supervises his colleagues so as to identify each one's potential, stimulate it and develop it.
6. Visits classrooms to rate teachers and check that the curriculum is being taught.	6. Visits classrooms to help teachers overcome difficulties and to make sure that pupils are learning.
7. Does not consider that the cultural and professional advancement of the teachers in his school is his concern.	7. Considers that it is inherent in his duties to promote, facilitate, organize and co-ordinate the lifelong training of the teachers in his school.
8. Maintains occasional and purely formal relationships with pupils' parents.	8. Makes every effort to establish with parents and the community relationships of mutual understanding and co-operation in the educational field.

CONCLUSION

A knowledge of official regulations is essential, as is their proper application.

True, the regulations cannot cover everything. There are even cases in which their absence or inadequacy is keenly felt. The tasks of administration, management and leadership are performed today in such a way as to leave the school principal a certain freedom of action enabling him to adapt to circumstances. The school principal is increasingly encouraged to regard himself and his school as privileged protagonists in the processes of change, educational innovation and community development.

But in any event, whatever action the school principal takes must take the regulations into account first and foremost.

PART TWO

THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS AN ADMINISTRATOR OF THE EDUCATIONAL COMMUNITY

I. The principal as an administrator and manager.

II. The principal as a leader and teacher educator.

III. The principal as a controller and evaluator.

IV. The principal as an agent of relations with the environment.

The strict application of rigid and general rules and regulatons formulated by higher authorities does not always favour the adaptation of the school to the new demands made on it:

The intake of a considerable number of pupils (in Africa, the number of pupils rose from 5 million to 53 million between 1950 and 1975).

The broadening of the scope of the education system (introduction of pre-primary classes, incorporation and special education of handicapped pupils, development of school sport, practical education for the social and occupational integration of young people, etc).

The concern with democratization, necessitating the wider circulation of information, favouring initiative on the part of the principal and the teachers (it is a powerful incentive for teachers to participate in seeking solutions to problems and to feel that they have been given a share of responsibility in projects which they have helped to implement).

The involvement of parents and the local community.

The onus of accountability, and the need to seek the most rational and least costly form of organization (since resources are increasingly sparse).

The aim to improve standards of teaching and reduce scholastic failures.

For all these reasons, the teacher who is appointed to the post of school principal must acquire a new profile. As pointed out at the end of Part I, he is at one and the same time:

§ An educational team leader.
§ A school administrator.
§ An agent of change and a protagonist in development.

I. THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS AN ADMINISTRATOR AND MANAGER

I.1. School administration

For a long time, primary school administration was of a quite rudimentary form. The principal was responsible for effeciently running a school designed to inculcate a uniform minimum of knowledge. This is no longer the case today.

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Changes that have occurred in the education system and in the social environment have required a fresh view to be taken of education, of the role of the school in society, and of the role of the teacher in the learning process.

We have already referred to some of these changes:

The extension of the scope of the school to include pre-primary education, the teaching of handicapped children, the instruction of young people in practical subjects, and participation in non-formal education, often of the community type, for illiterate adults.

In the face of the growing number of enrolments, the rapid and disordered development of the education system has gradually become a highly organized process. In most countries, education may be considered as the major issue. Within this complex organization, the school principal may be compared to the manager of a factory that is part of a large multinational corporation. In such large undertakings, planning, research, the development of new processes and products, and the priority objective of the quality of the finished product are recognized as essential components of the whole. But education does not always have at its disposal the necessary financial, personnel management, documentation, statistical, research, forward planning, programming, advertising and public relations departments. Consequently the school principal receives less technical assistance and logistic support than a factory manager working for a large multinational corporation.

The specific nature of educational administration makes it difficult to compare the education system with the productive system. It is considered natural that administrative tasks be assigned to teachers, and the post of school principal is an extension of the post of teacher. Consequently administration is regarded as an onward stage of a teacher's career.

The number and complexity of the problems that have to be coped with by the central administration inevitably entails a certain degree of deconcentration of tasks. In countries with a highly centralized organization, decisions are made entirely at the national level, while the tasks themselves are to an increasing extent delegated to intermediate levels, and even to the local level.

In countries with a decentralized organization,not only tasks and responsibilities but also powers of decision are delegated to intermediate or local levels. The term used in this case is decentralization. In either case, deconcentration or decentralization, it quickly

became apparent that certain problems could only be dealt with rapidly and effectively at the central level. For example, the transfer of a teacher from one school to another in the same town can be deconcentrated without difficulty, just as the replacement of teachers on long leave of absence can be decentralized to the area or local lavel, or even to the level of the school in the case of large schools.

This transfer of tasks and responsibilities (deconcentration) or of decision-making powers (decentralization) is not without repercussions on the role of the school principal, and also on the degree of participation of the members of the educational community (teachers, parents, and the local authorities).

Thus the school principal has gradually assumed greater administrative importance. He is called upon to perform, at least in part, all administrative functions. This means that his duties and responsibilities must be clearly definied so as to avoid conflicts of competence, notably at the local level, where the school principal, the primary school inspector, and the local administration may overlap. In general, the authority of the school principal is inversely proportional to that of the inspector on the one hand and the teachers on the other.

I.2. The administrative functions of the school principal

Research has shown that the administrative process exists in every organization, and that this process is independent of the size and objectives of the organization. Its components can be defined as:

§ Prediction.
§ Organization.
§ Direction.
§ Co-ordination.
§ Control.

Other studies have analysed organizations and decision-making processes, but with emphasis on the technical aspects (planning, financial management), human relations and communication.
Within educational administration, there exists a functional breakdown which, despite some variants, is characteristic of every education system:

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§ Planning and statistics.
§ Curricula and teaching.
§ Peronnel management.
§ Management of premises and materials.
§ Finance and budgetary control.

This functional breakdown applies to all levels of administration of the education system - central, intermediate, local - and to the school itself. The trend towards deconcentration and decentralization is becoming increasingly marked. Thus for school principals, who are the people most directly concerned by the solution of problems and the satisfaction of users of the education system, decision-making centres are increasingly close and sometimes lie at the level of the school itself.

Even principals with a small staff can nowadays take on many tasks whose increasing diversity justifies granting them more autonomy and responsibility, particularly with regard to:

§ The management of time spent in school.
§ The preparation of timetables.
§ The choice of teaching materials.
§ The evaluation of teachers.
§ Relations with the local community.

However, the degree of autonomy lies more in the use of resources than in the determination of needs, and this raises a serious problem that has not been solved in most education systems. Despite a relative autonomy, the participation of the principal protagonists and users (pupils, parents, teachers, communities) is very uneven; many studies reveal in particular a certain reticence on the part of teachers and reserve on the part of parents, confirming the view that, as is sometimes said, the school holds itself in "splendid isolation". This turning in of the school upon itself is due to many factors: lack of training of the principal in specific activities such as group dynamics and human and public relations; lack of experience of team work; inadequate information and communication; lack of support by the Inspector and the local administrative authorities.

This tends to reduce the participation of the other protagonists to mere passive presence in purely consultative bodies, and points up the role and function of direction and supervision, to which we shall now give our attention.

I.3. STYLES OF LEADERSHIP AND DECISION-MAKING (1)

Decision-making is like a play on the exercise of power. It brings together:

Actors with different statuses, interests and sometimes conflicting motives, as well as unequal amounts of knowledge and information.

A stage on which the actors move, i.e. some rigid or flexible structure which may be irrational or functional, hierarchical or open-ended.

Rules of interaction, established on the basis of the relative weight of human, social and political factors, pressure groups, and a basic distribution of areas and means of wielding power.

A plot built on possible alternatives, with analysis of their consequences and foreseeable impact.

No matter how big the stage, however, this drama runs the risk of shrinking into a monologue wherein the other actors find themselves playing mere walk-on bit parts. For example, if a school principal has an authoritarian character and a lot of leeway in his school, he may be inclined, at least unconsciously, to utilize the procedures of participation to limit dialogue to mere consultation so as to keep the final decision-making power himself. Or perhaps he will manipulate the groups concerned (pupils, teachers, parents) so as to benefit from their conflicts. This is all the more possible in proportion as the power of intervention decreases from teachers to parents to pupils. The more centralized the structure and organization of the education system, the more decision-making depends on the principal himself. Such decision-making may be:

§ Autocratic (the principal alone decides).

§ Consultative.

§ Collective.

§ Delegated.

In what follows we reproduce three questionnaires (taken from "School Administration", produced in 1973-1979 by the Teacher Traning and Curriculum Development Project undertaken in the Caribbean by Unesco, UNICEF and UNDP. They are intended to enable you to analyse your style of leadership.

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(1) This section is taken from Educational Management at the Local Level (EPP, Unesco, 1985) and Senior Educational Personnel: New Functions and Training (Unesco, Educational Studies and Documents, nº 55, Vol. II (1987).

These questionnaires are primarily instruments of self-analysis. You need not reply specifically to all the questions; the idea is to set you thinking and to help you to see your way of doing things in perspective.

Preliminary indications

You have to identify three basic leadership styles:

(A) Autocratic.

(B) Democratic.

(C) Free-rein (the term which we shall use as the English equivalent of "laissez-faire").

To these are sometimes added two other styles:

Bureaucratic.

Charismatic.

In the *autocratic* situation you have, of course, the sort of leader who expects obedience, no argument, and who determines policy and makes the decisions. He knows best. He directs. When he says 'jump!' people jump!

The *democratic* style of leadership draws on the power of the group. That is, the leader draws on the ideas and contributions of staff members. This style features consultation, discussion and involvement of staff in policy making and decision making. The leader sees his job as something of a moderator, who then goes about the business of putting the decisions into action.

Laissez-faire is probably better expressed by the English description 'free-rein' and this is the term which we will use. The leader exercises a minimum of control and allows individuals of the group a great deal of freedom. The leader appears to be on hand mainly to provide information, attend to administrivia and act as a resource person.

The *bureaucratic* style of leadership is rarely leadership at all. He is the type of person who does everything 'by the book' and whose job seems to be to see that regulations are faithfully observed and that all minor matters of administrivia are carried out according to the expectations of the superiors further up the line. He tends to maintain the organization and keep its interrelated parts functioning. He sees to it that established routines are maintained. It is a style of leadership which minimizes conflict and change.

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Charismatic is a difficult term to explain. Literally translated it means 'favoured of God' and features great personal magnetism and often a deep inner spiritualness. Ghandi and Joan of Arc are regarded as charismatic leaders. What about Martin Luther King or Pope John XXIII?

Most school principals exercise a combination of these styles, although the charismatic leadership style is not often found in schools. Usually one particular style will be dominant within the area of individual authority allowed by the system.

A school administrator is a bureaucrat because he holds a position gained by authority within a bureaucratic system. So the principal is charged, to a certain extent, with *maintaining* the organization and pleasing those above him, with whom he identifies to a large extent. However, he does have certain areas of autonomy within his school, and his leadership style will become evident in how he uses these areas of authority. He may control as an autocrat, involve staff of all levels in a democratic manner or simply stay in his office, answer the phone, attend to visitors and parents and leave the teachers to run the school, giving them free rein.

How well he integrates, blends, balances and adjusts the components of leadership will, to a great extent, determine his impact as leader of that school.

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1. A member of your staff tells you that your most senior teacher always seems to be finding ways to discredit you with other teachers. Would you:

   A. get rid of the teacher? ☐

   B. tell the informant to mind his own business? ☐

   C. check to find out if the information is correct? ☐

2. There is one promotion position vacant and you have two people on your staff eligible for it. Both have the same qualifications and length of experience. One is a good friend of yours, the other has no particular connection with you. In making your selection, would you:

   A. pick your friend? ☐

   B. choose the other, to show you are fair? ☐

   C. refer the matter to an independent arbiter or a committee? ☐

   D. toss a coin? ☐

3. One of your staff has made a stupid and careless error. You feel like telling him off in no uncertain terms. Do you:

   A. go right ahead and tell him off? ☐

   B. keep your temper to show your self-control, and quietly point out the mistake at an appropriate time? ☐

   C. smooth the matter over for the sake of harmony? ☐

   D. thump him one, right on the nose? ☐

4. A teacher on your staff makes a reasonable request for a privilege. You dislike the person and know that you could refuse the request without being thought unfair. Would you refuse the request?

   A. yes ☐

   B. no ☐

5. One of your teachers is doing a particularly good job and saves you a lot of work and worry. You know that a recommendation from you would get him a promotion, but that promotion would be to another school, and this would leave a serious gap in your own staff. Would you:

   A. keep him? ☐

   B. recommend the promotion, regardless of the inconvenience to you? ☐

   C. delay the promotion while training somebody else to take over the responsibilities? ☐

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6. You learn that one of your staff is carrying on in his private life in a manner which you disapprove of. As far as you can tell, his short-comings are not reflected in his work, and he is a particularly competent teacher. However, you regard his private life activities as quite improper. Would you:

   A. suspend him or get rid of him one way or another? ☐

   B. have a friendly talk and explain that eventually his way of life might affect his work and chances of future promotion? ☐

   C. make it clear from the way you treat him that you disapprove of his conduct? ☐

   D. leave well enough alone? ☐

7. You have put yourself out to be friendly with one of your staff who is a generally unpopular sort of person. Then you hear that he has gone to your superior with an unfavourable story about you. Once you have got over being angry, in which direction would your thoughts run?

   A. 'There you are! You try and do a man a good turn and he stabs you in the back!' ☐

   B. 'Unfortunate fellow—he's so emotionally mixed up he can't form a friendly relationship with anybody.' ☐

   C. 'I'll send him down the drain just as fast as I can!' ☐

8. One of your staff is a real crawler. He bends over backwards to be nice to you. Your reaction is to:

   A. tone it down to save him from the resentment of others? ☐

   B. enjoy it? ☐

   C. let him see that he can have your friendly consideration without having to 'buy' it? ☐

9. You have been promoted to a very senior position in the system. Your colleagues organize a social gathering to congratulate you. You notice that one of your colleagues is very sour on the whole affair. You also know that he had hopes of getting the promotion himself. Would you:

   A. simply regard him as emotionally immature? ☐

   B. decide to watch him in future in case of disloyalty ☐

   C. think out a way to help him over it without becoming a bad friend? ☐

10. Your new teacher is experienced and capable, but you soon get the impression that he doesn't think much of *your* competence. Then you hear that he is by-passing you and taking up various matters with your superior instead of with you. Would you:

    A. discuss the problem with your superior? ☐

    B. give him as difficult time as you can? ☐

    C. talk to him about the ethics of the situation, make him understand that he has stepped out of line and that you don't expect a repetition? ☐

    D. work on proving to him that you are in fact competent in your position as his superior? ☐

11. One of your assistants comes to you with a petition that almost everyone on the staff has signed. They want you to withdraw a rule you had made concerning lateness of teachers and had been enforcing rigidly by suspending certain teachers. They want you to withdraw the drastic measures you feel necessary to back up your ruling. Do you:

    A. go along with the petition, since it reflects the majority opinion? ☐

    B. say you'll be pleased to cancel the ruling just as soon as teachers show they can arrive regularly on time? ☐

    C. find out who started the petition and give him hell? ☐

12. The Ministry brings in a new regulation that is very unpopular. When you call a staff meeting to announce the new policy, would you:

    A. state that you are aware of the unpopularity of the new policy, but suggest a trial period before any protests are made? ☐

    B. make it clear that you too thoroughly disapprove of the rule, thereby keeping your popularity with the staff? ☐

    C. simply lay it on the line: 'That's the rule and I'm going to enforce it.' ☐

13. Generally speaking, it is best to keep the work of your staff moving along constructively by:

    A. a strong guiding hand? ☐

    B. leaving them to their own devices? ☐

    C. getting them to function as a group that shares in planning, decision-making, organization and so on? ☐

14. You want to win the backing of your staff for a series of new ideas you plan to bring into the organization of examinations and school reports. Which of the following methods would probably get the best results?

A. describe the new organization in detail and tell them you expect every teacher to give it wholehearted support? ☐

B. run a series of meetings in which they share in the planning ☐

C. lay it on the line—'that is the way it will be done and that's that'? ☐

D. go ahead and hope for the best? ☐

Compare your action decisions with the majority consensus.

15. Re-read these 14 situatons. Analyse them in terms of *basic components of leadership*. *Try* and arrive at *five* basic components:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

Comments

The fourteen situations described in the leadership action quiz suggest five basic components of leadership:

Situations 1-6: each situation asks how impartial you are in making your decision, hence your *objectivity*.

Situations 7-9: these particularly call on your concern with human relations, and your decision in each case will reflect your *understanding of people*.

Situations 10-13: these focus especially on the use of power that comes with the status the person has because of his official position, hence the decisions reflect *use of authority*.

Situation 14: the basis of decision here lies in your attitude to communication with the staff, hence the focus is on *communication-mindedness*.

Of course, there is overlap and some elements of each are to be found in each situation. But what of the *fifth* basic component? This is not specifically identified by any one example, and you might volunteer a range of highly relevant suggestions. However, the basic component that appears to be particularly relevant is *flexibility*.

Attitude—leadership quiz

Let us focus on the three major styles of leadership: *autocratic, democratic and free-rein.*

Each is not exclusive of the others, of course. There are times when you are under pressure to complete a job, and the autocratic approach is needed to get results quickly. At other times, you need to free the initiative and creativity of the group, and so you need a different style of leadership. However, most people tend towards one of these three styles as their general approach, and so it is important to consider what sorts of *attitudes* might be expected to develop, given a certain style of leadership.

Obedience, co-operation and initiative are three areas of attitude that can be linked with styles of leadership. Identify the relationships:

1. If it's obedience you're after, your leadership should be

   .....

2. If you want your people to be co-operative, that attitude will most likely emerge through leadership that is

   .....

3. If you want initiative to be used as freely as possible, then your leadership style should be

   .....

Now complete the leadership style quiz which follows:

Each situation described might be handled by different people in the ways suggested. Decide which action you would take, and identify whether that action would be regarded as:

A. Autocratic
D. Democratic
F. Free-rein

1. A member of your staff, a very strong person with a strong sense of rivalry towards you, has a clique that is very uncooperative and difficult to get along with. Would you:

   A. get him transferred?
   B. break up the clique by shifting individuals around?
   C. tell him that you know what he is up to, and try to come to grips with the problem by open discussion?
   D. without attacking any one member, try to come to grips with the situation on an individual personality basis?

Your action ☐ leadership style ☐

2. Is your highest award (promotion or recommendation, for example) generally given to the person who:

   A. does the best job?
   B. tries the hardest?
   C. has shown the greatest loyality to you?

Your action ☐ Leadership style ☐

3. You call a staff meeting to discuss some problems that have arisen in the school—controversial problems associated with the general behaviour of certain students. The meeting degenerates into a round of bickering and heated disagreements and turns into a sort of open forum for certain rival groups to 'get at each other'. Would you:

   A. give each man a chance to justify his view?
   B. eject the noisiest?
   C. elect a committee to investigate the problem thoroughly?

Your action ☐ leadership style ☐

4. One of your staff convinces you that certain Ministry regulations have resulted in an undercurrent of discontent that is affecting the general work level of your staff. Would you:

   A. tell them to ignore the regulation in the interest of better group performance?
   B. try to sell them the policy because that is what your loyalty to the Ministry demands?
   C. consult your superior?

Your action ☐ Leadership style ☐

5. You find your staff divided into two camps. The embarrassing aspect of the problem is that you, yourself, are at the core of the controversy. One camp supports your administration policies; the other is opposed. There are about the same number of staff members in each faction. Would you:

   A. try to adjust your policies to make everybody happy?
   B. give hell to those opposed to you, especially their leader?
   C. get key people in each group together with you to hold an open discussion designed to examine the whole matter?

Your action ☐ Leadership style ☐

6. You disagree completely with the teaching methods of one of your staff. You grant that the disagreement is basically a matter of opinion. Would you:

   A. let him follow his inclinations?
   B. pressure him into adopting the methods you prefer?
   C. compromise on a course between the two opposed ideas?

Your action ☐ Leadership style ☐

7. One of your staff refuses to come to you with his problems, even though things are going badly for him. He says he'd rather 'muddle through in my own way'. Would you:

   A. allow him to follow this course?
   B. try and help him resolve the difficulties?
   C. let him know that he either comes to you with his difficulties or he's in for trouble?

Your action ☐ Leadership style ☐

8. Your efforts to get teacher X to co-operate with teacher Y on a work problem are fruitless. They refuse for personal reasons. You realize you've made a mistake in trying to get them to work together. Would you:

   A. insist they obey orders?
   B. have a three-way talk to settle the feud?
   C. take up the matter in separate talks with each?
   D. let the matter drop and get somebody else to do the job?

Your action ☐ Leadership style ☐

What type of leader are you?

A. Uris[1] suggests that it is possible to get an idea of what type of leader you tend to be. He offers the following quiz as a starting point, saying that it will reveal to you, in appropriate terms, the type of leader you naturally tend to be. Try it and see how far you agree with him.

	YES	NO
1. Do you enjoy 'running the show?'	☐	☐
2. Generally, do you think it is worth the time and effort to explain the reason for a decision or policy before putting it into effect?	☐	☐
3. Do you prefer the administrative end of your leadership job—planning, paperwork and so on—to supervising or working directly with your subordinates?	☐	☐

(1) Auren Uris: Techniques of Leadership. New York, McGraw Hill, 1953.

4. A stranger comes into your school, and you know that he is the new teacher sent by the Chief Education Officer. On approaching him, would you first ask *his* name rather than introduce yourself? ☐ ☐

5. Do you keep your staff up to date on developments affecting the group, as a matter of course? ☐ ☐

6. Do you find that in giving out assignments you tend to state the goals and then leave methods to your subordinates? ☐ ☐

7. Do you think that it's good common sense for a leader to keep aloof from his people, because in the long run familiarity lessens respect? ☐ ☐

8. Comes the time to decide about a group outing. You've heard that the majority prefer to have it on a Wednesday, but you feel sure that Thursday would be better for all concerned. Would you put the question to a vote rather than make the decision yourself? ☐ ☐

9. If you had your way, would you make running your group a push-buttom affair, with personal contacts and communication held to a minimum? ☐ ☐

10. Do you find it easy to bawl somebody out? ☐ ☐

11. Do you feel that the friendlier you are with your people the better you'll be able to lead them? ☐ ☐

12. After a considerable time, you work out the answer to a problem concerning the whole staff, and you present your answer to a staff meeting. A relatively junior teacher pokes it full of holes. Would you be annoyed that the problem is still unsolved, rather than angry with the junior teacher? ☐ ☐

13. Do you agree that one of the best ways to avoid problems of discipline is to provide adequate punishment for violations of rules? ☐ ☐

14. Your way of handling a situation is being criticized. Would you try to sell your viewpoint to your group, rather than make it clear that, as boss, you make the final decisions? ☐ ☐

15. Do you generally leave it up to your subordinates to contact you, as far as informal day-to-day communications are concerned? ☐ ☐

16. Do you feel that everyone in your group should have a certain amount of personal loyalty to you? ☐ ☐

17. Do you favour the practice of appointing committees to settle a problem rather than stepping in to decide the matter yourself? ☐ ☐

18. Some experts say differences of opinion within the work group are healthy. Others feel that they indicate basic flaws in group unity. Do you agree with the first view? ☐ ☐

To get your score, count the number of YES answers you had in the following groupings of questions:

Group A: Questions 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16.
Group B: Questions 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17.
Group C: Questions 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18.

I.4. THE DELEGATION OF AUTHORITY

Whatever your style of leadership, your duties and responsibilities have become so varied, your tasks so numerous, and your work so fragmented (you often have to switch from one job to another without having time to pause for breath) that it is sometimes necessary for the authorities to appoint an assistant principal or to provide additional administrative resources such as modern automated office systems and the personnel to operate them. But this costly solution is reserved for schools in very large towns, and in most cases you are the sole person responsible for running the school.

In which case, the solution is to organize team work and delegate a certain number of tasks to your teachers.

Apart from spreading out the administrative work load, this solution has other advantages, among them:

- it enables the principal to be a leader rather than a bureaucrat relying on the regulations to make his own decisions.

- it enables the teachers to demonstrate their abilities and their potential.

- it gives the teachers an opportunity of taking an active part in a share of responsibilities, thereby improving the working climate of the school.

Such team work is often the most effective way of attaining objectives; it also speeds things up and prevents delays which further accentuate the imbalance between the administrative and the educational sides of the principal's job.

Delegation does not mean simply assigning a member of the staff to perform a certain task for which the principal takes the credit if it is properly carried out, and if it is not the luckless teacher concerned takes the blame. The work delegated has to be clearly defined, together with the share of responsibility involved, so that the person to whom the job is assigned is valorized. The nature of the principal's respcnsibility then changes; he simply has to keep an eye on the efficacity of the team work which he has organized.

In the following pages we reproduce a checklist of attitudes to delegation (developed by the Caribbean project already referred to, and cited in "Educational Studies and Documents" nº 55, vol. II, 1987).

1. Attitudes to delegation

Each situation reflects a negative attitude towards delegation—analyse the problem in each situation.

He's delegated the job, but it's still his responsibility, and by George he's going to see that every 'i' is dotted and every 't' is crossed. After all, he's the boss—and everyone appreciates guidance.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Maybe he should have assigned that job to someone else. Maybe he should be doing it himself. Maybe it shouldn't be done at all. Better take it back until the whole matter can be reconsidered.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

He's perfectly willing to delegate—but only the disagreeable parts of the job.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

No use burdening one man with the entire job. It's kinder to split everything up among several people. No one will ever get a clear picture of what's involved, but at least it spreads out the work.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

He's the administrator who handed out the jobs and masterminded the whole operation so why shouldn't he take all the credit?

Comment:

All right—he'll delegate. But woe betide any subordinate who is luckless enough to make a mistake.

Comment:

Delegation—what better way to ensure plenty of time for extended luch hours, time for shopping, and maybe even an occasional game of golf. His subordinates may not be prepared for the added responsibility but what better way to test a man's mettle?

Comment:

Long experience has taught him that the only way to get a job done right—that is, the way he would have done it himself—is to do it himself.

Comment:

Barriers to delegation

There are many reasons why administrators do not delegate, or why staff members are reluctant to accept delegated responsibility: some of these are noted below. Comment on the relevance of each to your own situation.

The administrators

Some people do not understand the nature of administration. They have no clear picture of their role as administrators and consequently do not know how or what to delegate.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Some people are perfectionists who think that no one else can do the work as well as they can. They are not content to accept someone else's work unless it conforms exactly to their own pattern. This is the type of administrator who must change a word here or there in a report or letter and want the whole thing re-done merely because this is the way he would have expressed it.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Some people are egotists. They do not delegate because they want to keep all the power and authority to themselves. They want to take all the credit for the work of their department or organization and they are afraid that giving authority to their subordinates will detract from their own importance.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Some people are afraid. Ths is because they do not think their staff members can handle the work. They think of possible mistakes and their consequences—of slower results—of wrong decisions and the real or imagined inability of staff.

Comment:

Delegation may create a situation in which anxiety is produced in the administrator because his own success depends on the performance of subordinates who are carrying out tasks for which the superior is responsible.

Comment:

Some teachers resist accepting the responsibility being offered to them through delegation. Some fear failure or criticism; some lack self-confidence or the necessary training; and some simply don't want to get involved, preferring to leave it to somebody else.

Comment:

Delegated tasks are performed more out of respect for, or in deference to, the authority of the administrator than because of any interest the person may have in the task.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Delegated tasks are more often related to the goals of the administrator than to those of the teachers.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

The 'boss' gets the credit while the teachers do the work.

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Here are some measures which can facilitate the sometimes difficult art of delegating tasks and responsibilities:

- provide all available information on the general objectives and policy of the school, explain the work that is delegated clearly and precisely, and answer all questions asked.

- delegate, at the same time as the job itself, the authority corresponding to the responsibility involved.

- show your confidence in the teacher concerned by accepting his decisions.

- be receptive of all information on how the work assigned is performed, so as to be able to intervene if need be with useful advice, create a climate of co-operation, and prevent resentment.

- encourage the teachers concerned and congratulate them on the quality of their collaboration.

You must also decide what tasks it is possible to delegate. They vary from one school to another, depending on its size, the prevailing climate, the principal's style of leadership, and so on. They may include:

- representing the principal on certain occasions.
- contacts with parents concerning absent pupils.
- managing the school library.
- matters relating to caretaking and keys.
- the storage of teaching materials.
- the delivery of supplies.
- being the school's specialist in the teaching of a given subject (to help inexperienced teachers or replacements, to lead discussions after model lessons, etc.).

Delegation must lie in the context of genuine team-work. Decision-making is unquestionably the most important function of the principal, and the trend is increasingly towards seeking the participation of teachers in sectors of decision-making that were formerly the strict preserve of the principal.

Delegating tasks and responsibilities is not the only way of instituting a healthy participation in decision-making, and it is often effective only if it is done in the context of genuine team-work enabling decisions to be made collectively, or submitting opinions and advice to the principal so that he may make an enlightened decision himself.

There is a vast literature of modern research in organizational decision making, from which five generalizaions can be made for the school principal: (1) effective participation by teachers in meaningful (as opposed to trivial) decisions does pay off; (2) teachers do not want to be involved in every decision, nor do they expect to be; (3) an important task for the principal is to distinguish between those decisions in which teachers should be involved and those that should be handled in other ways; (4) the roles and functions of teachers in decision making can be varied according to the nature of the problem; and (5) the point at which teachers are involved in the decision making process can be varied according to the problem.

Some administrators will attempt to create a façade of staff participation by permitting teachers to deal with minor problems while reserving significant decisions for themselves. This situation may give rise to resentment. Similarly, there are some areas in which teachers expect the principal to make decisions for himself, because they feel he is paid to make them. Clearly, one of the first personal decisions that the administrator must make is to identify which decision areas should involve staff; then, as a matter of effective communication, make sure that staff members understand which areas involve their shared responsibility.

Even though research has shown that participation by teachers in decision making 'pays off', it is equally clear that such participation can be overdone. Excessive involvement of teachers can produce resentment and resistance: teachers want the administrator to settle his own problems and do not want to be excessively tied up in committee work.

The school principal, then, is faced with two essential questions: (1) at what point in the decision making process should teachers be included? and (2) in what way should the teachers participate when they are included?

The answers to these two questions will largely determine how much freedom and influence—even power—teachers will actually possess for materially affecting decisions made in the organization. The following criteria may be useful for the effective delegation of authority:

— Decide what areas will benefit from staff participation.
— Distinguish between advisory capacity and real decision-making exercies.
— Avoid asking staff to make decisions on matters that are trivial or irrelevant.
— Have a proper procedure for taking decisions.
— Do not merely pretend to accept staff decisions but implement them and plan feedback of results to staff.
— Plan opportunities to review and, if necessary, modify decisions on the basis of feedback.

Ways of involving staff in making decisions

- Discuss with staff the procedure to be followed.
- Regular staff meetings in which all teachers (not just the senior élite) are encouraged to participate.
- Departmental meetings, staff committees and advisory groups representative of all, not merely senior teachers.
- Informal discussions with members of staff, including social occasions.
- When formal decision-making processes are appropriate (e.g. a staff vote) set ground rules (e.g. majority; 2/3 majority) and stand by them.
- Summarize or record clearly what decisions have been made, and publish them to the staff either as minutes or a staff memo, or on the staff noticeboard.
- Plan fully representative upward flow of communication from all areas of the staff—not merely by departmental heads reporting (or filtering!) what their department staff members say.
- Build staff morale and cohesiveness by social and school functions.
- Avoid, as far as possible, using your authority as principal to overrule staff decisions reached as a result of consensus.

Who will decide?

If the administrator attempts to make decisions on matters which teachers feel are within their area of concern, he will undoubtedly encounter uncooperative feelings and possibly resistance. Clearly, one of the first decisions an administrator must make is to identify decisions which involve the staff.

Three tests the principal might apply are those of *relevance*—when the teacher's personal stakes in decisions are high, the interest in participation should also be high; *expertise*—if participation is to be meaningful and significant, teachers must be competent to contribute effectively; and *jurisdiction*—education systems are organized on a hierarchical basis, wherein the individual school and staff have jurisdiction only over those decision areas that remain, either by design or omission, within their orbit.

II. THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS A LEADER AND TEACHER EDUCATOR

A certain reservation on the part of teachers where participation is concerned has already been noted. This obviously depends on the climate prevailing in the school.

Research has clearly revealed that one of the factors involved in improving the quality of education is the motivation of the teachers. The principal must therefore lose no opportunity of driving home the fact that his main aim is to help the teachers to be more effectual.

Over and above seeking the participation of teachers through the delegation of tasks and responsibilities and by giving them a voice in decision-making, the principal has a very important role to play in the dissemination of information and in the in-service training of teachers.

II.1. SUPERVISION IS A MATTER OF DIALOGUE AND COMMUNICATION, NOT AUTHORITARIAN DIRECTION

II.1.1. Staff meetings

Staff meetings provide the main opportunity of establishing this dialogue and communication.

It depends on the principal whether staff meetings are regarded by teachers as a nuisance - a necessary evil at best, serving little more purpose than to provide the principal with an audience. Policies are transmitted downwards from the principal; staff members may ask questions and perhaps influence very minor modifications of policy, but it remains clear that the policies are essentially the principal's and it is the business of the staff to understand them and to carry them out. On the contrary, the staff meeting is just as essential for upward and horizontal communication as it is for downward communication. Horizontal communication enables teachers to exchange information among themselves. True, many matters, in particular those expressly covered by the official regulations, lie outside the scope of such exchanges, but as we have seen the school is not uniquely governed by rules and regulations laid down by higher authorities.

In some cases the regulations expressly make provision for regular meetings of a "Teachers' Council" attended by the principal and his teachers. In principle, this Teachers' Council submits its opinion on all the matters referred to in what follows, but it has no voting power. It is also sometimes recommended for it to serve at the end of each term as a Disciplinary Board, congratulating good pupils and reprimanding bad ones.

In what follows we shall deal with staff meetings organized on the principal's initiative.

Staff meetings have a variety of *functions:* they play a professionally valuable role by keeping teachers well informed of everything happening in the school and of each other's ideas and attitudes; they contribute to the building of staff morale, providing opportunity for building a cohesive unit while allowing expression by individuals; they provide the 'safety valve' of open forum and open avenues of upward and horizontal communication; they encourage each teacher to look upon himself as a member of a team; and they contribute towards induction of untrained teachers and help them gain confidence in their new 'teacher' role.

Their *purposes* are to exchange information about some matter of common concern: e.g. school discipline or new regulations; to make some important announcement that cannot successfully be done by memo or noticeboard; to make decisions that affect the running of the school; and to resolve a problem by sharing ideas.

Their *guiding principles* include clearly defined meeting goals; democratic leadership with full staff involvement; staff informed (well ahead) of day, time and place of meeting; published agenda meeting and staff having opportunity to suggest topics; minutes of previous meeting published in advance (any other relevant materials issued in advance); ensuring that meetings are not interrupted unnecessarily; making sure that the physical preparations are made (e.g. sufficient chairs), are as comfortable as possible and are arranged to favour open communication; having a meeting secretary/recorder; making sure that the agenda topics are appropriate to all (avoiding matters that affect only a small minority); and planning allocation of time within the meeting.

Appropriate meeting business includes general school policy and organization; matters that affect the general welfare of students or staff; school functions—overall policy on extra-curricular activities; staff-student relations, parent-school relations, fund raising; student discipline affecting the whole school, student routines, organization, dress etc., as relevant to the whole school; basic principles governing allocation of teaching loads and timetabling; appointment of student leaders, certain school awards and prizes; overall policy of student assignments, homework, evaluation, etc., where a common policy is desirable; physical conditions in the school; and matters affecting staff professional development and matters affecting the education system in general.

Business not appropriate includes partisan political issues, rumours or religion; private lives—of children, parents or staff; reprimanding of teachers; matters more appropriate to bodies interested in labour legislation, such as a branch of the teachers' union (this would include discussion of politically imposed policies affecting the school, the staff or the students); problems of individual students, unless sufficiently serious to affect the whole staff; issues that affect only a small minority of staff; curriculum, teaching methods, organization and routines that are the internal concerns of any particular subject department in the school—except where the whole staff might be affected; and trivial or routine matters that can easily and effectively be handled by other means—e.g. personal contact, memo, noticeboard.

Guidelines for meeting chairman

- Define the purpose and goals of the meeting in your introductory remarks.
- Chair the meeting, don't dominate it.
- Don't let the senior few dominate.
- Avoid argument yourself, and especially avoid taking issue with others or arguing from the chair with staff members.
- Don't allow exchanges between individuals. Direct them to address their remarks to the chairman.
- Limit each speaker's remarks to the topic at hand.
- Insist that comments be concentrated on ideas and information—not on the personalities of those participating in the meeting.
- Provide opportunities for expression of the widest possible variety of points of view. As the majority develops, make provision for the minority or minorities to get a fair hearing until the point of final decision is reached.
- Make sure that any proposal (motion) put forward by a staff member is clearly stated and clearly worded, even if you have to tidy up the wording yourself and interpret it to the meeting.

Working through committees

The committee system is particularly valuable in any social, business or school organization and is essential in any legislative body. A small committee can accomplish a great deal when it comes to the collection of information, assessment of importance, determination of alternatives and proposal of appropriate action for the staff meeting or school executive to consider.

Ad hoc Committee

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Ad hoc committees are small groups appointed to accomplish a defined specific task. *Ad hoc* in Latin literally means 'for this'. An *ad hoc* committee functions until the specific task is done and report made to the parent organization. When this is done the committee has no further responsibility.

Standing Committee

Sometimes it is good practice to keep certain committees in continuous existence, perhaps because the same sort of problem keeps repeating itself or there is need for constant collation and up-dating of information. The standing committee exists in either active or stand-by state because its function is a continuous or recurrent one.

A well organized committee system cannot only save the principal a great deal of personal time and effort but also contribute greatly to staff morale, while at the same time opening lines of communication in all directions. Further, staff members feel involved and contribute more effectively, and a considerably more successful professional atmosphere results.

Guidelines for staff noticeboards

To be effective as a means of communication, staff noticeboards must: be located at a strategic point and be easily accessible; have a strong and immediate visual impact and therefore be well-organized,* uncluttered, tidy and of adequate dimensions; avoid a proliferation of out-of-date, irrelevant notices, and therefore some staff member should be delegated the responsibility of regular updating of the board; and attract staff attention, which may be interpreted as meaning that staff members should be encouraged to refer to the board daily.

Conditions for written memos to be effective

Precise wording—clear, brief, to the point.
Use sparingly—avoid a proliferation of memos.
Appropriate timing—to reach persons affected when they are receptive.
Clear direction if action is required.
Clear indication if reply or some form of feedback is expected.

II.1.3. Communication check-lists

The check-lists which follow (again taken from the document already cited) are, like the previous questionnaires, instruments of self-analysis. The idea is to set you thinking and to encourage you to modify your approach if you consider it opportune to do so.

Check-lists

Communication—basic considerations

Discrimination

1. How will the communication be most effective?
   - — informal personal contact?
   - — individual interview?
   - — staff meeting?
   - — written memo?
   - — staff noticeboard?
   - — secretary/phone?
2. Who will be responsible?
   - — self?
   - — someone else (delegated)?

Impact

1. Will those involved receive the communication when they are most receptive?
2. Will those involved receive all the information needed?
3. Will they know how to act on it?

Feedback

1. Has care been taken to ensure that no barriers will exist to prevent effective communication?
2. Is the communication designed to prevent any misunderstandings?
3. Does the communication demand some sort of individual response or feedback?
4. Have you ensured accurate feedback to you?
   - — direct?
   - — indirect?

Communication—staff meeting preparation

Chairman

1. Have you a clear concept of the general purpose of the meeting?
2. Do you have specific goals for the meeting?
3. Have you prepared your chairman's notes?
4. Have you readily at hand information needed, such as reports, facts, etc.?
5. Have you reported on matters arising from the previous meeting?

Staff

1. Have you notified the staff of date/time/place/length of the meeting?
2. Have you forewarned those staff members who may be required to provide information, reports, etc.?

Agenda

1. Has an agenda been prepared?
2. Are the topics for the meeting appropriate?
3. Were others consulted in preparation of the agenda?
4. Has the agenda been distributed or displayed?

Minutes

1. Have the minutes of the last meeting been prepared?
2. Have they been checked?
3. Have they been distributed or displayed?
4. Has other information relevant to the meeting (e.g. reports, correspondence, etc.) been prepared and either duplicated and distributed or displayed on the noticeboard?

General organization

1. Have you delegated responsibility to ensure proper physical conditions:
   — sufficient chairs,
   — appropriately arranged,
   — chalk, other aids needed.
2. If the school is still in session, has provision been made for supervision of the children and to eliminate noise interference?

Communication—staff meeting follow-up

Chairman

1. How long did your introductory remarks take?
   — Minutes.
2. Were they really necessary?
   Did you:
3. Dominate the meeting?
4. Do most of the talking?
5. Get involved in arguments with staff members?
6. Stick to the agenda?
7. Allow argument or side discussions between individuals?

Meeting

1. Did irrelevancies creep in?
2. Did a few do most of the talking?
3. Did the meeting run out of time?
4. Were decisions clearly worded?
5. Were there clashes of personalities?

Feedback

1. Have you planned feedback on the meeting from a widely representative range of staff members?

Action

1. Have you noted clearly the executive actions you have to take as a result of the meeting?
2. Are there letters to write?
3. Are there people to see?
4. Is there information to be obtained?

II.2. LEADERSHIP AND TRAINING

The school is not only a place of learning, it is also a place of socialization where the child learns to live and develop in a community, in such as way as ultimately to favour his social and occupational integration.

It is therefore of fundamental importance that the school principal and the teachers create a climate which helps to shape not only the pupils' intelligence, but also their sensibility, their determination, and their adaptation to present and future society.

After having pointed out the importance of communication, we shall now deal with the school principal's role in the training of teachers.

II.2.1. The supervision of replacements and of new or inexperienced teachers

In most countries, the official regulations assign to the school principal the responsibility of receiving and supervising teachers newly appointed to the school: 'It is the right and duty of the school principal to provide teachers with guidance, especially beginners, and to co-ordinate their efforts to a common end. A delicate task which falls to the principal is to

put the finishing touches to the training of his staff. This requires infinite tact, patience and good will'.(1)

The new teacher or the replacement is welcomed by the principal, who introduces him to his pupils in the class to which he is assigned. This is followed by contact with the rest of the teaching staff, during the recreation period for example. This will also provide an opportunity for the newcomer to be given a certain amount of information concerning the life of the school. Initially, the principal pays frequent visits to the new teacher in his classroom, and these visits become less frequent as times goes on.

The purpose of this general advice is to enable the new teacher to assert himself and to play his role in the school. This is not altogether easy, and the help of the principal and of his colleagues is welcomed.

In order to assert himself, the new teacher must:

- avoid eccentricities in dress or behaviour;
- express himself in clear, simple and well-chosen language,
- remember that he serves as a model or an example for his pupils at all times,
- be self-confident, exercise self-control, and remain calm in all circumstances,
- be firm, and tolerate no misbehaviour. Pupils should be prevented from chattering in class. It often suffices to lower the voice in order to restore silence,
- the pupil who causes a disturbance in the classroom must be looked straight in the eye,
- firm rules should be set concerning any moving around in the classroom,
- the teacher is responsible for maintaining discipline in his classroom, and must assert himself without having recourse to excessively severe sanctions. The punishments he metes out must be proportional to the gravity of the offence,
- he must assert his authority and demand respect by his own personal qualities and strictness, rather than relying on his inherent authority as a teacher or on the backing of the school principal to punish any pupil guilty of misconduct.

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(1) Official instructions taken from Le Vade Mecum du Directeur d'Ecole, by G. Tournier and R. Clarys, published in 1961 by Librairie Delage, Paris. Much of section II.2 has been taken from this book.

Judicious advice can be given to help the young teacher to assert his authority: he must never be late, he must stand facing the pupils at the head of the line before entering the classroom, demand silence before the pupils sit down and avoid chatting with his colleagues while the pupils are standing in line.

In addition, the new teacher must:

- be cognizant with the internal regulations, and take the principal's comments fully into account,
- never leave a pupil unsupervised in the classroom, unless he is authorized to do so to perform a specific task;
- never allow himself to become angry, and never strike a pupil,
- if possible, take out an insurance policy covering civil responsibility and providing for assistance in case of criminal responsibility,
- notify the principal of any major untoward incident or accident.

It is in the interest of the new teacher to put his pupils to work immediately. Perhaps the first day has to be improvised, but very soon each lesson must be prepared, in most cases in a 'preparation book' which can be shown to the principal and to the Inspector. Each day's work must be planned, and a future monthly, quarterly and yearly programme must be established so as to cover all the subjects in the curriculum. The preparation of lessons is of fundamental importance: the pupils' results depend upon the interest they take in the lessons and activities provided for them. The principal's visits to the classroom should enable him to make sure that the lessons have been properly prepared.

In order to become integrated in the teaching team, it is in the interest of the new teacher to ask his colleagues and the principal for information on such matters as:

- the scale of punishments in relation to the gravity of the offence (it is better for the teacher to settle a minor disciplinary problem himself rather that to have recourse to the principal),
- the frequency and scale of marking (e.g. from 0 to 20 or from 5 to 18),
- the amount of homework set, allowing for the fact that working conditions at home are sometimes difficult, in which case it may be preferable to arrange for homework to be done in school after classroom hours.

This supervision of the inexperienced, new or replacement teacher can also include useful advice relating to general education (what books to read?) and a knowledge of administrative organization and the education system as a whole. The school library may be inadequate, and the principal may sometimes lend his own books or documentation.

But the supervisory role of the school principal does not stop there; he must also play a pedagogic role, which is very important and which alone justifies the post of school principal being filled by a teacher.

In the course of his regular visits to the classroom of the new or inexperienced teacher, and in particular when he examines the lesson preparation book, or on the occasion of conversations (e.g. during the recreation period, or more or less official conversations outside the classroom) the principal is a true professional, able to understand and justify what he does, with regard to:

- Methods, precedence being given if possible to an active method (requiring the participation of pupils) rather than an excessively dogmatic or formal method. This does not mean that the teacher must forego any kind of formal lesson or explanation, especially if his class is very big. A balance must be arrived at between active methods and formal lectures in this case.

- Content, in relation to the way subjects are taught. How can a given subject be taught? The official instructions provide for a precise breakdown of each subject in the curriculum, and provision is often made for a sequence to be followed for each subject and for each level of teaching.

But these instructions and directives cannot govern everything; if they did so, it would mean a uniform education, every class throughout the country being taught the same lesson at the same time, and doing the same exercises!

How can the following subjects best be taught in function of the level of the teacher's pupils and the prevailing circumstances:

- ethics,
- civics,
- language (reading, writing, recitation, grammar, spelling, vocabulary, etc.),
- arithmetic,
- history,
- geography,
- science and nature study,
- manual and productive work,
- drawing, music, singing,
- physical education and sport.

How can the new teacher be prevented from simply transmitting the theoretical knowledge which he has acquired himself? Singing, for example, should be taught first of all from the angle of the pleasure of singing, and not as an exercise in sol-fa; in other words, the voice and the ear must be trained before beginning the theoretical study of music.

How, in function of the level of the pupils and of the timetable, can reading be given precedence over other subjects? A lesson in history, geography or science can be made, in part, into a lesson in reading or writing.

How can a given subject be taught when the pupils do not have a textbook? Must the teacher systematically write on the blackboard everything that the pupil must copy into his exercise book?

This is where the principal plays his essential training role. To do so, especially if the school is large, he can have recourse to the most experienced teachers for giving advice on this or that subject, so as to facilitate the integration of the new teacher in the educational team.

II.2.2. The in-service training of teachers

The school principal plays just as fundamental a role with regard to the in-service training of all the teachers in his school:

- He is in a position to propose or designate teachers for participation in a further training seminar or a refresher course, and to ensure subsequently that what they have learned is transmitted to other teachers in the school.

- He is the final decision-maker regarding the acquisition of library books and of teaching journals to which the school subscribes.

- He is the natural and permanent relay of the primary school Inspector. The latter, even if he is assisted by one or more educational counsellors, can visit the school only occasionally. When he does so, it is mainly to inspect a teacher before proposing his promotion, and he does not have much time to devote to tasks other than those laid down by the regulations where control is concerned.

However, the inspector can contribute to teaching journals, and in some countries - such as Senegal - this is an obligation.

Furthermore, he is often called upon every year to give a lecture on a subject which becomes a theme for thought and action during the current year.

The school principal is the natural and privileged relay of the Inspectorate where the work of the Inspector is concerned.

But his role as a teacher educator goes far beyond that. For example, in Guinea the staff meeting becomes once a month a "teachers' collective" to attend a model lesson given by one of the teachers to his pupils. This

takes place in normal working time (often on Saturday morning) and gives rise to comments and criticisms under the chairmanship of the principal, who has moreover organized the school accordingly (some of the classes stay at home, others are organized in workshops under the supervision of volunteer parents).

The model lesson has often been disparaged, but if it is properly conducted it is nevertheless a privileged training exercise.

The discussion which follows the model lesson may be structured around the following points:

- The subject of the lesson:

  - Does it conform to the curriculum?
  - Does it conform to the level of the pupils?
  - Is it properly adapted?
  - Is it timely in relation to the school year?
  - What is its principal value?

- The sequence followed:

  - the link between this lesson and the previous lesson,
  - breakdown of the lesson into parts, and the links between the different parts,
  - lead-in to the next lesson,
  - duration compatible with the pupils' attention span.

- The method employed:

  Does the method employed conform to the spirit of the instructions?

  - Did the pupils participate, and if so how?

  - How was the blackboard used?

  - Was judicious recourse had to the textbook?

  - Could other teaching materials have been used?

  - Was the class kept busy throughout, or were there empty gaps? Were there any problems of discipline?

- The results achieved:

  - Was anything learned?

  - What check was made on what had been learned? What exercises?

  - What percentage of pupils gave correct replies?

  - Was the class organized in a relevant manner?

- Strengths and weaknesses of the lesson:

  - Does anything need to be modified?

This exercise is difficult, and the school principal must put his colleagues on their guard against certain deviations which might adversely affect the climate of the school.

It is desirable to:

- concentrate on the lesson and its subject, and not be sidetracked by the decoration of the classroom, the way the pupils keep their exercise books, etc.;

- offer constructive criticism, useful to the teacher taking the lesson and to all the other teachers;

- make it a real lesson, and not an exercise in style;

- place emphasis on the qualities and not the defects of the teacher who takes the lesson;

- avoid regarding the principal as an Inspector or as an authoritative evaluator for the assessment of the teacher; it is the lesson which is under discussion, and not the teacher.

In conclusion, as in the other sections, we propose a questionnaire (1) allowing of a self-analysis enabling you to see your previous behaviour in perspective.

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(1) Taken from the same source as the other questionnaires proposed.

THE RECEPTION OF NEW TEACHERS

1. BASIC CONSIDERATIONS	1. If the new teacher is not yet experienced, has he attended an orientation course? If so, are you familiar with the content of this course? 2. If the teacher is already trained, are you familiar in detail with his qualifications and the type of training which he has received? 3. Have you planned a "contact-making" session? 4. How are you going to ensure that this teacher obtains the necessary information on the school: - general principles and basic policy of the school. - routine tasks and organization. - ministerial and administrative regulations. 5. How are you going to introduce him to the other teachers in the school?
2. THE CLASS	1. Have you given him general information on the classes assigned to him? 2. Is he thoroughly familiar with your requirements regarding the programming and preparation of lessons?

	3. Have you designated more experienced teachers: - to give the new teacher a warm welcome and reply to his questions, - to help him in preparing his lessons and performing routine tasks in the school.
3. SUPERVISION	1. Have you taken steps to ensure the supervision of the new teacher? 2. Does your supervision involve: - back-up? - assistance? - exchange of ideas? - model lessons? - verification of preparation of lessons, etc.? 3. Has the new teacher been informed of the supervision measures?

CRITICAL EXAMINATION OF AN INTERVIEW BETWEEN THE PRINCIPAL AND A TEACHER

1. BASIC CONSIDERATIONS	1. Was the interview with the teacher concerned planned in advance? 2. Did the teacher fully understand the justification for the supervision and the need for subsequent discussion? 3. Did the discussion take place in an appropriate place? 4. Did the discussion take place at an appropriate time? 5. Did you take care that the interview took place in a relaxed atmosphere?
2. WHAT HAPPENED AT THE INTERVIEW	1. Do you remember your introductory phrases? - what was their purpose? how did the teacher react? 2. During the interview: - who spoke more? - why? 3. Did you listen to all the teacher's explanations, comments, etc.? - or did you cut him short to put over your own arguments concerning supervision?

	4. Did you take notes? - if so, was the teacher able to see them while you were putting over your views?
3. EVALUATION	1. How do you judge his reaction (his attitude and replies) during the discussion? 2. Have you made the necessary arrangements to take any steps that may result from this interview? 3. What provisions have been made for the teacher to evaluate his own behaviour?

III. THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS A CONTROLLER AND EVALUATOR

As the last link in the administrative chain, ensuring a permanent link with your school, the school principal is responsible for gathering information that can facilitate decision-making.

Over and above submitting quarterly or annual reports and statistical information, the principal must play an effective role in controlling and evaluating the quality of the teaching provided in his school, even if this role is not always specified in the administrative regulations.

We shall deal first with the control and evaluation of the quality of teaching in terms of the results achieved by the pupils, taking as a starting point the individual analysis of each pupil and each class; we shall then examine the overall results achieved by the school.

III.1. MONITORING OF PUPILS' RESULTS (1)

Teachers and parents need to gather and share information concerning the nature of the educational behaviours (knowledge, skills and values) that have been taught, the extent to which these have been learned by the child, and the contexts in which the child has demonstrated these behaviours with either competence or difficulty.

In some circumstances this information will describe student performance on individual test items or particular tasks.

School principals seldom need to have information about the educational behaviours of individual children. When this kind of information is required, the principal can consult with the appropriate teacher. However, principals often need to be informed about the progress of learning for each class in the school. Information expressed at the classroom level is more suitable for assisting with decisions concerning the deployment of school resources to ensure that all classes achieve the school's educational goals which have been set by the principal, teachers and parents.

To this end, the principal can organize, for example, each term, a meeting with each teacher or with several teachers grouped by level of teaching, so as to take stock. At these meetings, the class results are noted, analysed and compared, in order to determine which classes need more back-up, and to see whether the objectives to be attained should remain unchanged or be modified (upwards or downwards). Also to see whether the organization of the school needs to be modified (introduction of lessons at several levels, grade repetitions, decompartmented activities, etc.).

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(1) The substance of this section is taken from Kenneth N. Ross and T. Neville Postlethwaite: Planning the quality of education: different information for different levels of decision-making, in Prospects, Vol. XVIII, nº 3, 1988.

From these meetings, the principal prepares an overall summing up concerning the school as whole, which in principle he transmits to the Inspector or to the relevant administrative department. The initiative and responsibility of the principal in this respect needs to be particularly emphasized. The Inspector and/or the higher authority cannot intervene unless the information they receive clearly establishes the existence of a problem and the need for a response (visit by the Inspector, the creation of a new post, the provision of a supernumerary replacement teacher, etc.).

The information communicated by each school principal on the results of his pupils and his school enables local, departmental, provincial or even national syntheses to be established. This information is therefore of the greatest importance, for it is in the light of the syntheses made at the highest level that decisions are taken concerning levels of performance to attain and the resources allotted to attain them.

If such a system of synthesis does not yet exist in a given area, the school principals and their Inspector may set up a system of information enabling each principal to compare the results of his school with those of neighbouring schools. Extremely valuable lessons can be learned from such comparisons.

Let us see the approach proposed by the authors cited on the previous page.

1. The teacher must concern himself with his pupils' results in certain fields, in particular languages, mathematics and science. The aspects to be taken into account are deduced from the analysis of the curriculum and of the official instructions for the level in question. For example, the following can be taken into account where languages are concerned:

- oral expression,
- written expression and spelling,
- understanding of simple texts transmitting an instruction,
- understanding of simple texts enabling a deduction to be made.

In mathematics, one may adopt as criteria estimation, arithmetic and elementary equations; in science, the study of the solar system, the differences between plants and animals, the properties of metals, etc.

Studies show that 8 to 10 questions are necessary to judge a pupil's ability to master a given field of study with reasonable certainty.

Assuming that for the three subjects in question we have evaluated the results obtained by 10 questions or tests on six aspects or particular fields marked from 1 to 6, leading to a total mark T, we can then establish, for a given class, a table similar to the following (only four pupils, A, B, C and D, figure in this table:

Pupil	Mother tongue							Mathematics							Science						
	1'	2'	3'	4'	5'	6'	T	1'	2'	3'	4'	5'	6'	T	1'	2'	3'	4'	5'	6'	T
A	9'	10'	4'	9'	10'	10'	52	4'	5'	5'	3'	7'	5'	29	9'	10'	9'	10'	9'	10'	57
B	9'	8'	1'	8'	9'	10'	45	9'	7'	8'	9'	7'	7'	47	8'	8'	9'	9'	9'	8'	51
C	9'	7'	3'	8'	9'	9'	45	8'	7'	9'	8'	7'	7'	46	8'	10'	8'	9'	8'	8'	51
D	9'	9'	2'	9'	8'	9'	46	8'	7'	9'	7'	7'	7'	45	8'	9'	10'	8'	9'	9'	53
...																					
...																					

At the principal's stock-taking meeting with the class teacher, it is then possible to deduce from this chart the significant data for each pupil and for the class as a whole.

For example, in the table given above we note that all the pupils achieved very good results in science. On the other hand, pupil A achieved good results in language , but low marks in mathematics; pupil A must therefore be advised to concentrate on the subject in which he encounters the most difficulty.

Another deduction: in language , the results of all the pupils are fairly good, except with regard to the 10 questions concerning aspect No. 3. The teacher must then give thought to what obstacle there could have been to the understanding and learning of the pupils where this aspect is concerned (did he devote sufficient time to it, were his explanations too vague, were the instructions imprecise, did the textbook fail to deal with this aspect, did he set no homework on this aspect, were the teaching materials employed unsuitable? There may be many reasons.).

2. The school principal is concerned with the teaching aspects, and with results achieved by the various classes in various subjects. He is led (either alone or with his primary school Inspector) to compare his school's results with those of neighbouring schools, or with all the schools in the area.

To do this, he estimates an 'absolute performance' concerning the part of the curriculum which has been satisfactorily assimilated by the pupils in his school, and he examines a 'relative performance', comparing his results with those of neighbouring schools.

The absolute performance can be assessed in terms of the percentage of pupils who have mastered this or that aspect of this or that subject (more than 75% : excellent; less than 25% : mediocre).

Comparison with other schools, in which conditions are the same, enables him to identify the methods and procedure which produce the best results. Useful deductions can also be made by examining particular variables (ethnic group, sex, etc.).

The authors cited propose the following table:

School	Mother tongue	Mathematics	Science
	Mean	Mean	Mean
School concerned			
Boys	40,6	45,8	50,3
Girls	41,3	33,4	49,7
Total	40,7	39,5	50,0
Similar schools			
Boys	55,4	40,1	50,1
Girls	53,0	39,2	49,2
Total	54,2	39,6	49,5
All schools in the area			
Boys	54,1	39,0	57,3
Girls	51,9	38,1	56,2
Total	53,1	38,5	56,7

The figures relating to the school concerned enable the absolute performance to be assessed. Those relating to similar schools or to all schools in the area make it possible to draw numerous conclusions from the relative performance.

For example, in language the school's performance is mediocre by comparison with that of similar schools or all schools in the area. This raises a number of questions:

- should the language syllabus be re-examined?
- should a visit be paid to the other school which has the best absolute performance?
- should the questions put on the different aspects be reviewed?
- should a course of in-service training for teachers of this subject be organized?

Furthermore, the table shows that the school has the best results in the whole area where mathematics are concerned. Nevertheless, the difference between boys and girls in this subject is the greatest. This poses a problem; how could it be solved?

Lastly, the results concerning science are lower than the average for the area, but of the same order of magnitude as those achieved by neighbouring schools. This may be explained by a difference in resources where teaching materials are concerned, which is not always easy to remedy, because materials for the teaching of science are costly.

3. The methodology proposed must not give rise to unjustified value judgements. Before judging the results achieved by his school, the principal must analyse the school's context. The amount of knowledge absorbed by the pupils depends on many factors, depending on how much they already knew when they entered the school and on the cultural, social and economic environment of the school.

Take, for instance, a school with overcrowded classrooms, unsuitable premises, and few textbooks or none at all. It is located in a rural area, and most of the pupils' parents are illiterate. It would be a mistake to compare the reading and writing results with the average, and to conclude that the school is ineffectual. Perhaps the contrary is the case; in view of the context, the results are admirable, and in relative terms they are markedly superior to those achieved by a well-equipped urban school with a limited number of pupils.

What is important is for the principal to determine, in conjunction with his teachers, the variables which he himself can modify (they are called malleable variables, in contrast to non-malleable variables over which local educational administrators have no control). The school principal is not responsible for the socio-economic condition of pupils' parents, local weather and economic conditions, the school's isolation from cultural services, and the like. On the other hand, he may, in liaison with his

superiors and his Inspector, take immediate action in the form of a programme of in-service training (or self-training) of teachers, the acquisition of textbooks, the pupils' homework, and the organization of supervised or directed study after normal classroom hours.

What is important for the school principal is to transmit the information to his superiors so that the local, provincial and national authorities, duly informed, may be able to establish the priorities and take the most appropriate decisions to improve the quality of teaching.

III.2 MONITORING OF CLASS RESULTS AND OVERALL SCHOOL RESULTS

Monitoring the quality of teaching by analysing the marks obtained by pupils when questioned on the different subjects in the curriculum enables thought to be given by the principal and his teachers in the school and leads to a genuine participation of the teachers in seeking to improve their pupils' results. This thought and action is in itself a form of further and ongoing professional training.

Apart from the marks obtained by pupils in the main subjects of the curriculum, other criteria need to be adopted, even if only to prevent the school becoming even more intellectual and abstract than it already is.(1)

Another and more general indicator is provided by the number of upward movements from one class to the next, in terms of percentages of:

- grade promotions
- grade repetitions
- drop-outs.

The main objective, in terms of scholastic results, sought by the principal and the teachers is to reduce grade repetitions, to eradicate drop-outs, or to reduce them as much as possible, and to increase grade promotions.

Numerous studies show that grade repetition is often unjustified (to the extent that some educational reforms propose systematic grade promotion, and grade repetition only in exceptional cases).

The monitoring of grade repetitions and promotions is done in terms of 'pupil throughput' (see following chart). This method is designed to measure pupil wastage by keeping track, statistically, of the reduction in the number of pupils from the first year of school attendance to the following year, and subsequently year after year.

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(1) The accusations most often levelled against the school are that an abstract school is detached from the needs expressed by the community, and an intellectual school (i.e. one which gives precedence to the intellectual aspects of education) is a real obstacle to community participation.

In the first year, out of 1,000 pupils entering the school, A % move up to the next class, B % repeat their grade, and C % drop out. By keeping track of wastage, it is possible to measure the percentage of pupils who complete the five or six years of primary schooling without any grade repetition. It is very low.

The pupil throughput method can be expressed in graphic form. In the following example, only 238 pupils out of 1,000 completed their primary schooling.

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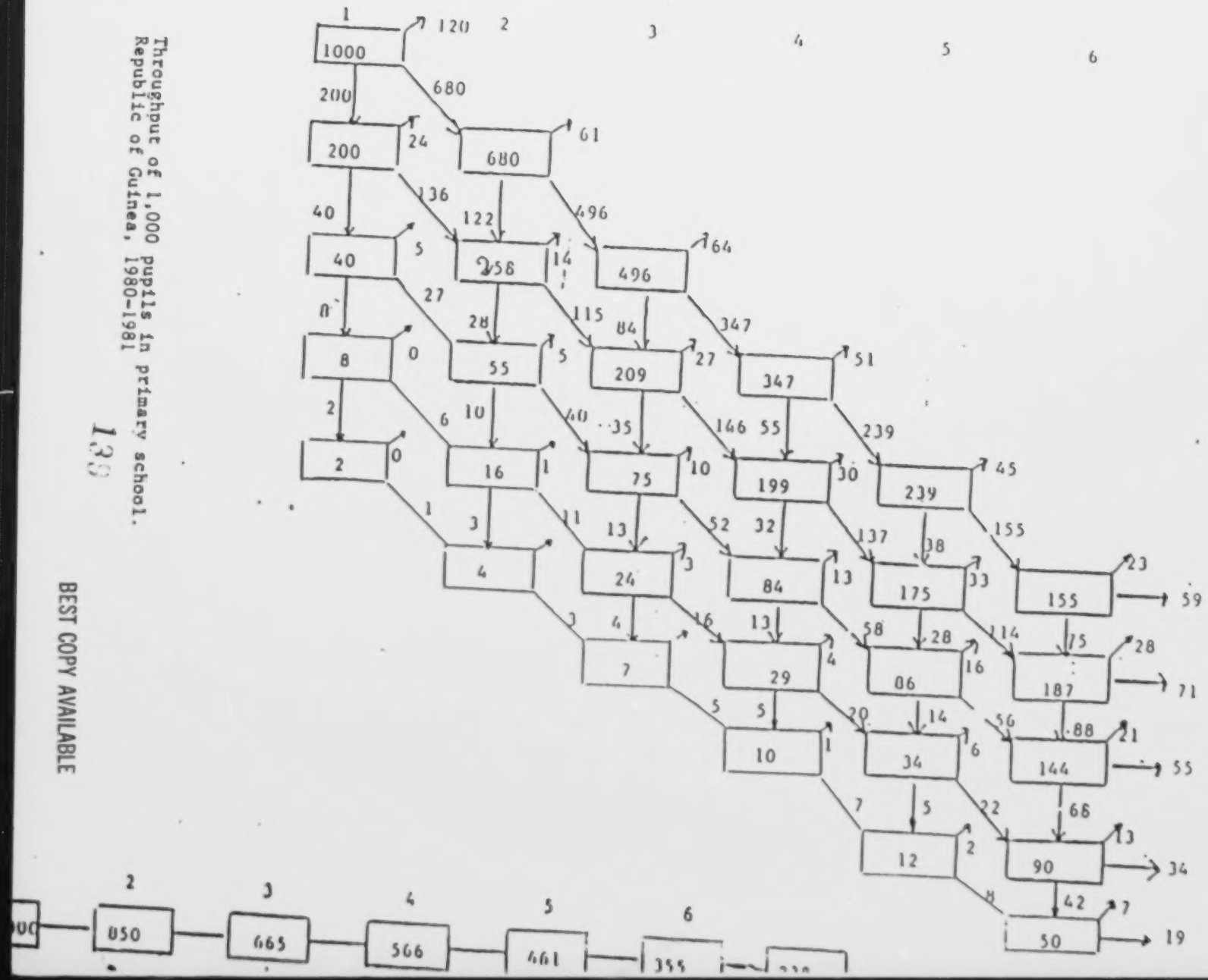
Throughput of 1,000 pupils in primary school.
Republic of Guinea, 1980-1981

BEST COPY AVAILABLE



The pupil throughput method makes it possible to compare the results of one school with those of neighbouring schools, other schools in the area, or schools throughout the country. Furthermore, this method is often used to study disparities in terms of social background, area of residence, and sex.

It is in the greatest interest of the school principal to keep track, year after year, of the rates of promotion and success of the pupils and classes in his school. He can then propose to teachers or to the local community precise and quantitative objectives for improving the rate of promotion and to catch up with or exceed the national average.

III.3. EXAMINATION RESULTS

The monitoring of pupils' results, either in terms of what they have learned in the principal subjects, or using the pupil throughput method, is all the more necessary in that the school is too often judged on the basis of a single criterion: examination success at the end of primary schooling. The transition from primary school to secondary school sometimes depends on an examination or on a highly selective competitive examination, allowing a minority of gifted pupils to continue their education.

The majority of pupils must be directed towards occupational training or traditional apprenticeship, or else enter employment.

This transition works badly, for two main reasons:

- Firstly, primary school teachers usually tend to give precedence to access by their pupils to secondary education, and they neglect practical training which would be of use to those who have to enter apprenticeship or employment at an early age.

- Secondly, the confidence placed in the school by parents is dependent on examination successes providing access to secondary education. Too often, parents cannot or will not 'invest' in the child who completes his primary education without going on to secondary school. This results in the non-integration of the child in the family system of production; it results in a sort of exclusion which condemns the young person to inactivity or to leaving the countryside in the hope of finding a hypothetical job in or near a large town.

III.4. THE CONTROL AND EVALUATION OF TEACHERS

As we have seen in section II.2.1, one of the attributions of the school principal is to help inexperienced, unqualified or replacement teachers.

The school principal is the primary and privileged interlocutor of the primary school Inspector. Though he does not actually inspect his teachers and is not required, as the Inspector is, to assign them an educational or administrative rating, he is nevertheless required to exercise a certain supervision - with regard to assiduity, punctuality, discipline, the proper

keeping of records and registers, and class results. Furthermore, it is by visiting the classrooms that the principal can identify human and professional difficulties encountered by the teachers (and in particular by replacements and beginners).

Identifying difficulties means being able to observe in the most objective manner possible, that is to say to "direct one's attention intentionally and in an ordered manner on singular objects or events". This is extremely difficult, because what has to be observed is mainly behaviour. Observing behaviour supposes that one is capable of defining as precisely as possible what that behaviour can or should be.

The observation of a lesson by the principal during a visit to a classroom must not be seen as a control or a criticism, but as a form of back-up which should be properly explained to the teachers concerned.

In practice, this observation is made on the basis of standardized charts, whether scientifically established by educational research workers or developed with the help of empirical instruments developed by the Inspectorate. We shall confine ourselves here to a series of simple techniques, developed by the observer himself.

We shall cite four simple methods of recording observations, together with a chart allowing of a choice of the most appropriate method. These observation techniques are complicated, and will be dealt with in an appendix.

(a) The method of intervals

This procedure is adopted when it is required to record continuously whether a given type of behaviour (or way of doing things) occurs or not.

In some cases this is easy. It suffices to list the number of times that the event occurs over a given period.

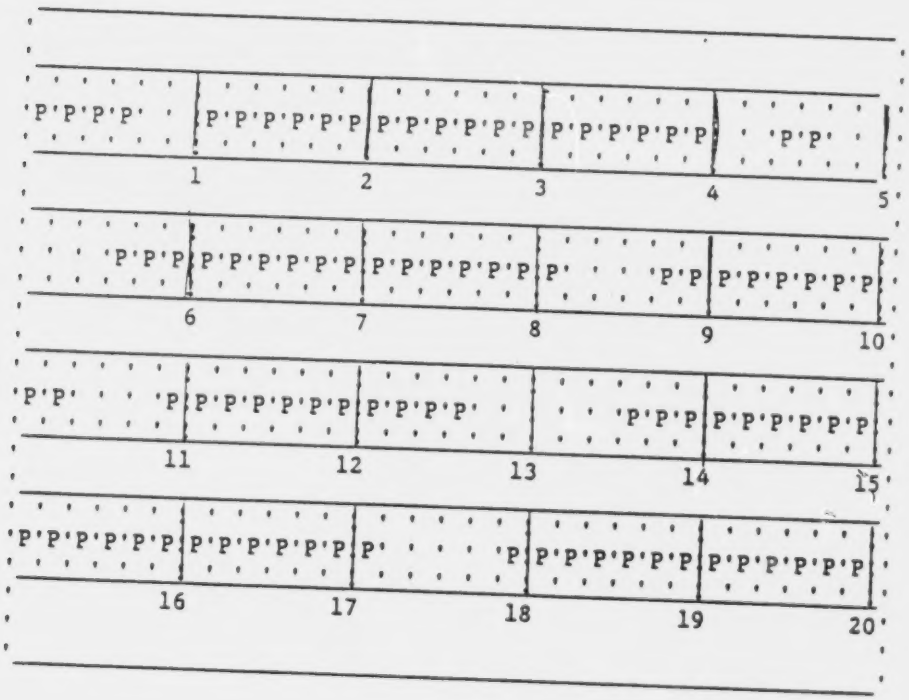
For example, the number of times the teacher uses an expression without any particular reason and unconsciously (a verbal tic) in a ten-minute interval.

It is sometimes much more difficult to record the manifestation of behaviour. Suppose, for example, that the principal remarks that one of his teachers talks far too much, and that he wishes to bring this to the teacher's notice through systematic observation.

This can be recorded by the method of intervals in the following manner: in the table below, each division corresponds to a 10-second interval.

The thick vertical lines indicate intervals of one minute. The letter P is entered in the corresponding space if the teacher is speaking during that 10-second interval.

We then obtain a table of this form:



Date and day: _____ BEGINNING OF OBSERVATION : _____ (time) END : _____ (time)

class : _____ group : _____

The letter P is entered even if the teacher does not speak for the whole of that 10-second period.

In the above case, in the course of 20 minutes (120 10-second intervals) the teacher spoke during 97 intervals, a total of more than 16 minutes.

The difficulty of using this method is to determine the optimum length of the intervals.

Their duration can only be established empirically, and depends on how often the particular type of behaviour under observation occurs.

The intervals must be sufficiently short to allow for possible interruptions in the behaviour in question, but sufficiently long to enable an accurate record to be made.

(b) The method of counting

When the behaviour lends itself to a precise definition, and when the observer is concerned with how often it occurs, the method of counting is quite suitable. It consists simply of marking a tick every time it occurs.

(c) The method of duration

The observer may be particularly interested in the time devoted to a given task.

For example, how many minutes are effectively devoted to reading in the course of a reading lesson, in function of a given class organization. The periods devoted to actual reading are recorded by means of a stopwatch.

(d) The method of samples

It often happens that the school principal cannot keep the behaviour with which he is concerned permanently under observation. This is the case, in particular, when a large class is under observation. The procedure is then as follows:

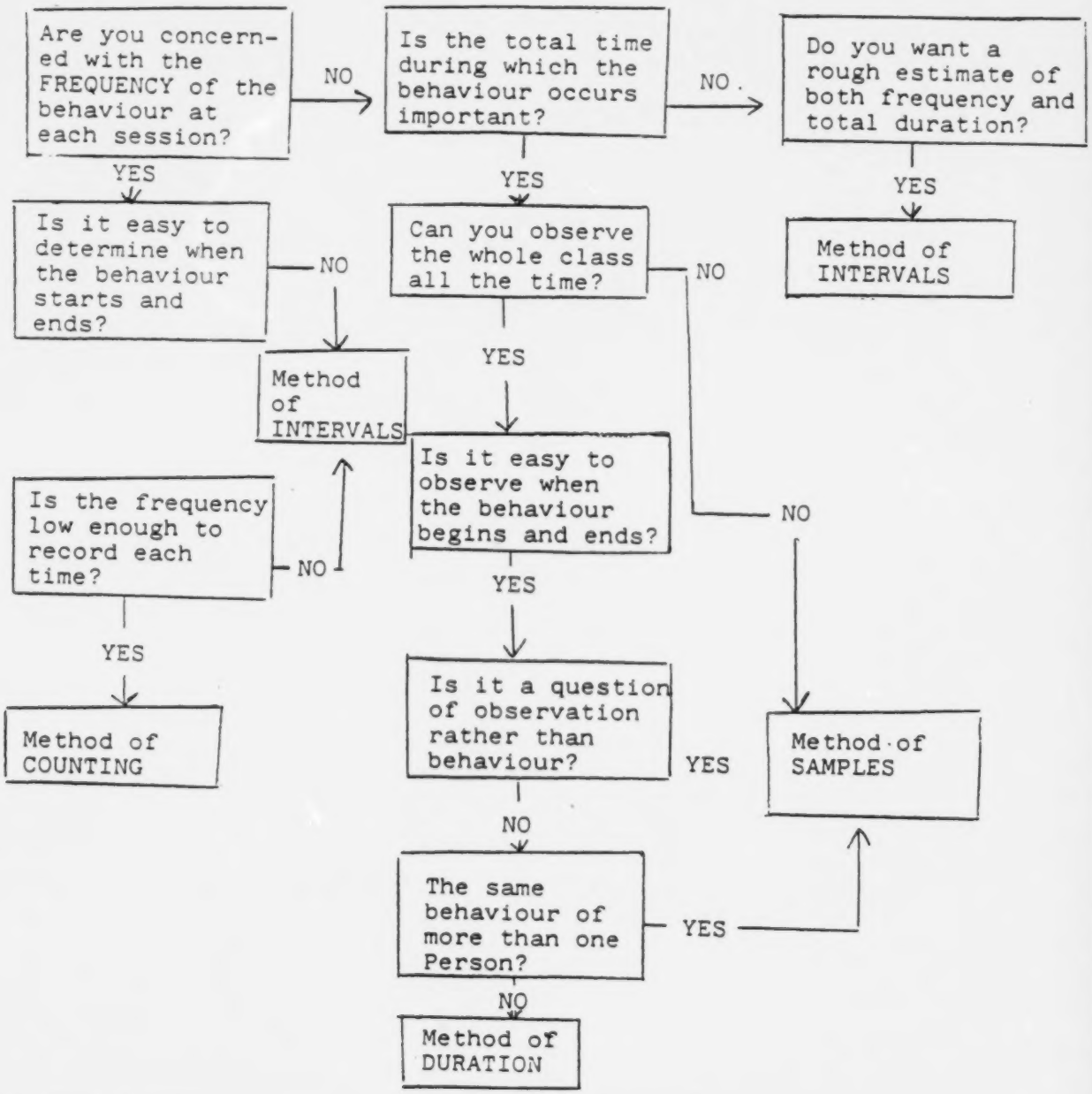
- Determine the frequency of the observations to be made in function of the time required to identify the behaviour in question, the duration of that behaviour, and the time necessary to cast an eye over the entire classroom.

- Suppose that the observer decided to make an observation every three minutes.

- At the end of this three minute period the observer examines the class, always beginning with the same pupil, and counts the number of pupils engaged in the behaviour in question at that moment. At the conclusion of the observation session, the proportion of pupils who have engaged in the behaviour in question is determined by adding up the number of possible observations recorded and dividing this number by the product of the number of pupils present in the classroom and the number of times the observation has been made.

(e) How to select the method of recording behaviour

D. JACKSON et al. (1) propose a useful algorithm for making a choice.


Are you concerned with the FREQUENCY of the behaviour at each session?
NO
Is the total time during which the behaviour occurs important?
NO
Do you want a rough estimate of both frequency and total duration?
YES
YES
YES
Is it easy to determine when the behaviour starts and ends?
NO
Can you observe the whole class all the time?
NO
Method of INTERVALS
Method of INTERVALS
YES
Is it easy to observe when the behaviour begins and ends?
NO
Is the frequency low enough to record each time?
NO
YES
YES
Method of COUNTING
Is it a question of observation rather than behaviour?
YES
Method of SAMPLES
NO
The same behaviour of more than one Person?
YES
NO
Method of DURATION

(1) D.A. JACKSON, G.M. DELLA-PIANA, H.N. SLOANE: "How to Establish a Behaviour Observation System". Educational Technology Publications, Englewood Cliff, N.J. 1975.

IV. THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS AN AGENT OF RELATIONS WITH THE ENVIRONMENT

As an administrator and manager, a leader, teacher educator, controller and evaluator, the school principal is a veritable pivot around which hinges - over and above the strict application of the regulations - the life of the school as a whole, considered as a closed system.

But, as you well know, the tasks of the school principal do not stop there; he must also be an essential liaison agent between the school and its immediate environment. The school lies at the centre of an educational community, and nowadays that community is not confined to the teachers alone.

A sense of human relations is required in order to ensure effective communication with:

- the users of the school,
- the local authorities,
- the immediate environment,
- the Parents' Association,

and, where applicable, the members of the School Council.

IV.1. RELATIONS WITH USERS OF THE SCHOOL

The prime users of the school are the pupils themselves; it is they who are the link between the school and the outside world. Apart from providing instruction, the school provides the pupil with socialization; it is the first link in the social life which forges the nation. Today's pupil is tomorrow's citizen, who will create the image of society and of the State. The school receives the children of all families; it must not render them docile, but on the contrary must seek to ensure their development, help them to find their own personality, and inculcate a certain creativity.

Whatever the directives and instructions in this connection may be, the moral training of the pupil is an extremely delicate task and one in which the principal plays an essential role.

The Vade Mecum already cited[1] contains an approach to the role of the school principal in this field: "through his day-to-day dealings with his staff, through his interventions in staff meetings, through his direct contact with pupils, the principal creates a climate in his school such as to ensure a sound moral training. To this end, he requires his colleagues to bear the following principles in mind:

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(1) Le Vade Mecum de la Direction d'Ecole, Librairie Delage, Paris.

- the development of the pupil's potential qualities and the correction of undesirable tendencies through exercising a firm but human discipline based on the sense of individual responsibility. This presupposes frankness on everyone's part, and not the fear or threat of repressive sanctions;

- training and effort. All pupils, even the least gifted ones, must be encouraged. A system of well-deserved rewards is often effective: an honour roll for the best pupils, an expression of confidence in those whose determination is uncertain, and an expression of satisfaction whenever merited. Children, like adults, the weak and the strong, the mediocre and the excellent, demand encouragement and incentive. This does not obviate the need for marking, rating and selection;

- the patient development of individual virtues during the five or six years of primary schooling must be accompanied by the acquisition of qualities essential to every adolescent's smooth integration into community life;

- compliance with the internal regulations, the functioning of the co-operative, participation in common tasks (keeping the premises clean, decorating them, setting up teaching materials, etc.), participation in sporting competitions, and altruistic occupations (correspondence with pupils in other schools, assistance to elderly people, protection of the youngest pupils, etc.) create good social habits;

- certain cynics may say that this is an optimistic picture of the influence of the educator, who is brought down to earth by day-to-day reality; but the facts are there, and the school principal must not be sceptical. The educator will exert an influence on the child only if he too is enthusiastic. Nothing is really or completely impossible.

Apart from the pupils, the real users of the school are, or should be, the parents. The principal here has a twofold role to play: on the one hand, he is the representative of the educational authorities (and of the teachers and other staff of his school), and on the other hand he is the custodian of the interests and rights of the pupils.

The school and the family share the responsibility for the education of children; they must therefore act in the most coherent and co-ordinated manner possible. Thus the first task of the school principal is to organize the information of parents by establishing and maintaining regular contacts with parents.

These contacts may take many forms, and the principal must make a sustained effort to establish contacts with parents, even if the latter do not clearly express the need for them:

- written contacts, through the correspondence book, the mark book and/or term bulletins. Parents should be kept informed of their children's school results not only by their marks, but also by assessments enabling them to work more closely with the school (justification of absences, better supervision of homework, etc.);

- oral contacts, through regular meetings attended by all the parents of pupils in a given class, along with their teacher and the principal;

- individual contacts, through interviews with parents arranged by the teachers or the principal, either at the parents' request or on the initiative of teachers ;

- institutional contacts, if the parents belong to an association (we shall revert to this below);

- social contacts, on the occasion of fetes, exhibitions of pupils' work, or "open days";

- visits to families;

- messages to parents.

In the course of these many and varied contacts, the information communicated to parents covers:

- compliance with the internal regulations;

- advice to parents concerning:

  - health
  - nutrition
  - rest, etc.

- the pupils' results: apart from assiduity and marks, the principal should take care that the teachers' observations are expressed positively (it is better to say "does not work hard enough" than "lazy"; or "has difficulty in learning" rather than "limited intelligence");

- the organization of classwork and homework. This is an occasion for putting over essential advice, such as "he must learn his lessons before doing his homework" and "he must do his homework before doing anything else or going out to play".

Contacts with parents may often go beyond mere information, and lead to the participation of parents in the life of the school (school fees, purchase of textbooks and supplies, voluntary supervision of activities or the organization of workshops, maintenance or even construction of school premises, etc.). Even though this participation - which we shall analyse in greater detail - is covered by regulations or by custom, it still depends on the involvement of the principal.

IV.2. RELATIONS WITH THE COMMUNITY

The leader of the local community (the Mayor, whether appointed or elected, or the traditional leader) is usually not the school principal's superior.

Tradition and political authority determine the participation of the community, and what form it takes. As a general rule, the community can:

- take responsibility, in part or in whole, for the construction and maintenance of school premises;
- provide the school with caretaking and maintenance staff;
- ensure that the educational regulations are complied with (absence, or expulsion);
- require to be informed of the number of enrolments and even receive a nominative list of all the pupils in the school;
- require to be informed of any serious accident or epidemic (the local authority can sometimes authorize the closing of the school);
- assume certain running costs, in whole or in part (purchase of teaching materials, supplies, textbooks, equipment for manual and productive work, pupils' travel expenses for educational outings or sporting competitions, etc.);
- request the school to organize adult education courses or study classes for pupils after classroom hours.

These numerous and diverse responsibilities naturally vary from one education system to another. In any event they make it highly desirable for permanent relations to be maintained between the school principal and the authorities. Apart from considerations of courtesy, and the communication of information laid down in the regulations, it is in the interest of the school principal to keep the local authorities informed of all important events in the life of the school, and to invite representatives of the community to all events organized by the school.

The situation differs depending on whether the school is located in a rural area (greater freedom, fewer resources, greater importance of personal

relationships) or in an urban area (relationships are more formalized by the regulations).

Whatever the geographical location, it is always advisable to keep a written record where important contacts are concerned.

IV.3. RELATIONS BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND THE IMMEDIATE ENVIRONMENT

It is the duty of the school principal to explore systematically all the resources of the school's immediate environment. This is a task of investigation and public relations which he must undertake in order to be familiar with the organizations, bodies and/or individuals with which the school may co-operate. Emphasis must be placed on the value, for the school principal, of broadening activities and pooling, where applicable, the resources available to one or other of the protagonists. It frequently happens that the resources of a school or of a project are not put to full-time use and that exchanges or time-sharing of materials, equipment, premises, and even personnel, can considerably enhance the profitability of resources.

There is sure to exist in the community an extensive sector composed of organizations possessing specialists in the social or economic fields who ask nothing better than to co-operate with the education sector.

The following list is not exhaustive:

- The nearest neighbouring schools. Is there a possibility of pooling teaching materials? Have these neighbouring schools introduced innovations which could be adopted elsewhere?

- Kindergarten and pre-primary educational establishments, and secondary schools. Is there is opportunity of undertaking joint action allowing of a closer mutual relationship and facilitating the often difficult transition from one stage of education to another?

- Could certain secondary school pupils, whether or not they are former pupils of the primary school in question, provide valuable help to the latter, for example by helping with the teaching of pupils encountering difficulties?

- Associations, centres and clubs in the community served by the school. Can an agreement be reached with the cultural centre, if there is one, the library, the sports club, to facilitate access to them by the school pupils? Can joint activities be undertaken with these bodies, or can material, financial and human resources be pooled?

- Economic agents. Is there an organization grouping craftsmen, farmers or tradesmen? What are the most important undertakings in the area close to the school?

How can these economic agents be brought into the picture: by helping pupils to study local conditions, or by participating in the life of the school (lectures, attendance at "open days", the annual fete, etc.), or again by providing guidance for pupils who enter working life after leaving primary school, without continuing their studies in secondary school? :

- resource personnel, who can become involved individually, whether they are the parents of pupils or not;
- religious leaders;
- the traffic and safety authorities;
- the local representative of the law;
- and, most importantly, the relevant departments of other ministries which can contribute to the education provided in the school (health, rural development, agricultural extension courses, development projects for specific activities or resources, etc.).

Each and all of these people and organizations in the immediate environment can, admittedly, contribute a great deal to the school: financial and material aid, voluntary participation, and assistance to former pupils. But a one-way collaboration may soon be reduced to that of parents alone unless the school itself makes a positive contribution. For instance, public information may be one of the objectives of this or that organization with which the school collaborates, in which case the school pupils can help by passing on information to their parents. The school can provide information on the education system to the personnel of the organizations with which it is in contact. The school can even participate in the organization and even in the implementation of non-formal educational activities for the benefit of this or that segment of the community.

Through a better mutual knowledge and two-way exchanges of information and services, the image of the school is thus enhanced among the local population. It gains in prestige and in efficacity.

Experience shows that whatever the official regulations and recommendations, success depends first and foremost on the successful integration of the school principal in the community.

IV.4. INSTITUTIONAL PARTICIPATION

Apart from the roles assigned to the local authorities and the local community, to which we have referred above, the regulations may leave room for a certain autonomy enabling the school to seek the participation of certain bodies on its own initiative. This participation varies considerably depending on the category of those involved: pupils, parents, teachers and the community. In numerous cases such participation is hindered by the reluctance of teachers, for whom it often represents an

additional unpaid activity, and in many cases too the participation of parents falls off.

This usually leads to participation being defined by the political authorities - and indeed this is practically the general rule in countries with a highly centralized organization.

For example, the official regulations sometimes lay down:

- the extent of the participation: definition of structures and functions, and the share-out of authority among different bodies. The degree of participation is also assessed in terms of its purpose, its frequency, its continuity, the representativity of the participants, and their real impact on the decisions involved;

- when the participation occurs: in the development process or in the educational programme;

- the representativity of the participants, whether appointed or elected;

- the impact of the participation, which can only be effective if the participants are qualified to take this or that decision, which is not always the case.

Participation is often a veritable challenge. It involves mainly:

- the Parents' Association;

- the School Council;

- the School Fund

IV.4.1. The Parents' Association

The regulations concerning the Parents' Association vary considerably from one education system to another. They may not exist, in which case it is up to each community to form its own association. Conversely, the association may exist at the national, provincial, area or departmental level, in which case the local Parents' Association is a section of the one which exists at the higher levels.

In general, the purpose of Parents' Associations is to defend the moral and material interests of the school, to represent parents, at the local level, among the public authorities and the education authority in particular and to inform parents of all matters concerning the schooling of their children.

In most cases, the articles of the association prohibit any interference in teaching activity. Furthermore, the membership of many associations includes both parents and teachers, which may lead to emphasis being placed on the defence of the school to the detriment of the genuine

participation of parents, with the concern with the defence of the material and moral interests of the school excluding any participation in matters that are the concern of the education authorities.

IV.4.2. The School Council

The School Council, when it is legally established, often corresponds to a board of directors. On it are represented the teachers and the different categories of personnel, representatives of the Parents' Association and of the local authority, and possibly certain qualified local personalities.

Such a council may have a very wide sphere of competence; it can deliberate on many questions, except those covered by the official regulations.

It is often headed by the Primary School Inspector, or by the school principal.

IV.4.3. The School Fund

This is an internal fund, contributed to by parents, and if need be subsidized by the authorities. It serves to finance the canteen and other internal school facilities.

IV.4.4. The participation of the community in the life of the school can thus take many forms, such as:

- simple one-way information provided by the school to its outside partners;
- consultation, in the course of which the community is not merely informed, but is also able to express its opinion and its points of view;
- a sharing of authority between the community, the public authorities and the education authority.

This participation, whether spontaneous, voluntary, recommended or compulsory, is tending to become widespread. Its importance often depends on the financial efforts required of the community or the neighbourhood.

Whatever the degree of participation of the community, a new responsibility emerges for the school principal, whose duty it is to be familiar with:

- the factors to be taken into consideration in his relationships with the community;
- existing community institutions;

- how the community participates in educational administration (planning, financing, management, etc.);

- ways and means of strengthening the participation of the community in educational development, and of education in the development of the community.

The following table (1) makes it possible to evaluate the activities which can benefit from community participation, having regard to the legislation in force, but having regard also to the resources, the autonomy and the political authority of the community; and furthermore, and most importantly, in the light of the personal relationships which the school principal maintains with the local authorities.

	Education Authority	School	Teachers	Parents and the community
FINANCING				
1. Obtainment of educational resources.				
2. Educational allocation.				
3. Purchase of teaching materials: text books, supplies, etc.				
4. Staff costs.				
5. Construction and maintenance.				
CURRICULUM				
1. Curriculum development.				
2. Curriculum formulation.				
3. Choice of materials.				
4. Choice of teaching methods				

(1) Taken from 'Educational management at the local level', EPP/TM/09, 1983, adapted from David FRIESEN: 'Decentralization: A Review'.

	Education Authority	School	Teachers	Parents and the Community
PUPILS				
1. Educational guidance.				
2. Evaluation.				
TEACHERS				
1. Recruitment.				
2. Appointment.				
3. Working conditions.				

CONCLUSION

This second part clearly illustrates the recent evolution of the profile of the school principal. In proportion as primary education assumes importance in the life of the nation, the function of the school principal becomes increasingly a function of responsibility, not only in the purely educational field, but also in the administrative, social and moral fields, whose boundaries are constantly expanding. Similarly, management is assuming increasing importance.

'Responsible for co-ordinating the differen classes of the school, concerned with providing newly appointed teachers with the professional training which they sometimes lack, preoccupied with maintaining close relationships with families and with the local authorities, highly respected counsellors in the field of educational and occupational guidance, school principals compel recognition as veritable managers and as indispensable cogs in the machinery of national life.

'To this function, which is no longer that of a teacher, but which embraces it and goes beyond it, the school principal must bring his own qualities of character, tact, sense of organization, and readiness to accept responsibilities.'(1)

It is to the development of these personal qualities that the second part of this guide is devoted, providing the serving school principal with an instrument of self-analysis for himself and his school.

Thanks to this self-analysis, he will be able, through judicious innovations, to improve the functioning of the school and the quality of the education provided.

Many studies have been undertaken concerning the school principal (Unesco project in the Caribbean, case studies carried out by OECD in developed countries); all of them show that there is no universal model for defining the job of the school principal, and they all stress that the authority of the principal, which was formerly based (especially in highly centralized countries) on a circumscribed action in a clearly defined hierarchy, is today based to an increasing extent on personal qualities and on the need for a real policy of communication, not confined to one-way (and often partial) information from the school to its users.

(1) Draft legislation concerning the creation of the grade of school principal, submitted to the French Parliament in 1960.

PART THREE

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THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS AN AGENT OF CHANGE AND A DEVELOPMENT AGENT

I. EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION AND CHANGE.

II. THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS A DEVELOPMENT AGENT.

In the first part of this guide, the emphasis was on rules and regulations, which are and must remain the basis of any action taken by the school principal.

In the second part, the idea was to enable you to see your day-to-day work in perspective in order to enable you to analyse your school, your role and your own behaviour. Attitudes and behaviour are centred around:

- AUTHORITY, which embraces objectivity, comprehension, decision-making, and the organization of teamwork, leading to a share-out of tasks and responsibilities and also to a greater participation of the protagonists in the educational process as it takes place within the school.

- COMMUNICATION, embracing flexibility, the supervision and leadership of teachers, and relations with the community and the environment.

Our review of the tasks and responsibilities of the school principal would not be complete if we did not deal, in this final chapter, with two relatively new fields which have been the subject of a considerable amount of research in the past decade:

- The management of the education system, which in most cases allows the principal a greater degree of freedom. An increasing number of problems cannot be dealt with at the central level and their solution must be found at the local level. EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION AND CHANGE are considered as being among the principal instruments for improving the functioning of the school and the quality of education.

- The difficulties encountered by many countries, notably south of the Sahara, which have led to thought being given to the goals of education and to the adoption of a model of community development. In these circumstances, the school principal in these countries becomes an AGENT OF DEVELOPMENT.

Let us take a look at these two aspects in further detail in this third and final part.

I. EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION AND CHANGE

Research on the improvement of the quality of education reveals the very important role played by 'senior educational personnel', and among them school principals. The problems of innovation have given rise to heated discussion: should everything be changed (new mathematics, new grammar, etc.) or should the school be isolated from the outside world and

revert to established practice? The question has not been settled, but as a recent document points out (1):

> The role of the school principal is unquestionably of considerable importance in the primary school, and of even greater importance where innovation is concerned.
>
> The term innovation designates new ideas and positive changes which help efforts to achieve clearly defined objectives.
>
> Educational innovations may take various forms: substitution (replacement of one textbook by another), modification (e.g. a longer working day at school), restructuring (e.g., the introduction of group work), etc. Innovation is applicable to all sectors of the education system: the running of the school, individualized programmes, curricula, organization, personnel, premises, teaching methods, etc.

The literature on this subject of innovation is unanimous in recognizing the primordial role of the school principal in the implementing of innovations and the efficient running of the school.

(1) Le rôle du chef d'établissement dans la mise en oeuvre des innovations à l'école primaire. Cultural Co-operation Council, Strasbourg, 1988.

I.1. THE PROFILE OF THE INNOVATOR

By definition, innovation encounters resistance to change, which is particularly strong within the education system. The success of school principals in this field is doubtless related to the fact that the principal knows each of his teachers well, so that he may help them and at the same time take fullest advantage of their potentialities.

Numerous studies confirm that innovators tend to be intelligent, creative, indivualistic, and not slaves of convention. They are young and have a good social status, education and income. They are cosmopolitan, and active in fields outside their local orbit. They absorb new ideas from impersonal sources (the radio, the press, etc.) and are often in a position to influence their peers; in many cases they are opinion leaders. They are adventurous, keen to experiment, capable of original ideas, and can express themselves well. They are motivated by interest, and spend a great deal of time analysing and explaining. They are less authoritarian than most people, and more non-conformist.

Do not worry if this description does not fit you completely; it does not mean that you have to give up any idea of introducing changes in your school. Because innovation is essential; to bring the new generation into the contemporary world, it is unthinkable for the school to disregard the need for change and innovation.

You are required to act as a catalyst, a provider of solutions, an auxiliary in the process of change, and to be familiar with the conditions of the environment and the people around you so as to be able to inspire, stimulate, motivate, orient and create the conditions necessary for creativity.

A leader must lead; he must handle situations, help to formulate questions, insist that problems be defined and solved; he must be an energiser.

I.2. FIELDS OF INNOVATION

In 'Educational management at the local level' (1), a list is given of the structural and functional adjustments which an administration must make in order to be responsive to the demand for education. These obviously vary from one country to another, but the following list should enable school principals in service to place in order of importance those factors which most clearly reveal a certain decline in the quality of education, or even a certain aggravation of scholastic failure.

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(1) Educational management at the local level: Division of Educational Policy and Planning, Unesco, 1985.

	In order of importance
- poor definition of objectives	_____
- inadequate financial resources	_____
- insufficiently qualified teaching staff	_____
- overcrowded educational centres and overcrowded classrooms	_____
- lack of motivation in staff	_____
- lack of technical support for educational centres	_____
- too many rules	_____
- cumbersome bureaucratic structures	_____
- authoritarian decision-making without participation by those concerned	_____
- wavering educational policy	_____

In countries with a highly centralized administration (such as French-speaking and socialist countries), the improvements to be made must be decided at the central level, and it is only in the way that they are applied that the school principal may exercise a certain autonomy.

In systems based on the Anglo-Saxon model (Australia, North America, English-speaking African countries), the school is a semi-autonomous unit and innovations, changes and improvements are expected to be decided and put into effect at the level of the school itself.

This is a somewhat rigid distinction, because as we have seen the increasing size and complexity of education systems leads to an inevitable decentralization, leaving more freedom at the local level.

So whatever the type of organization, a new role emerges for the school principal: that of improving the efficient functioning of the school, finding solutions to local problems which arise in connection with the implementation of new goals, and introducing innovations to improve the quality and efficacity of the education provided.

The school principal is no longer simply an administrator; he must also be an innovator. These two roles are apparently contradictory; but they are compatible if the school is run in a more democratic manner, with a wider delegation of authority accorded to all the protagonists concerned: teachers, parents and the local authorities.

What are the possibilities of innovation at the level of the school?

The systems approach is a privileged methodological instrument for determining the scope available for innovation.

The school principal proceeds in three steps:

- analyses his school so as to establish a diagnosis;
- defines quantitative objectives;
- identifies the resources and constraints relating to these objectives, in order to determine a possible strategy.

There are two kinds of objectives:

- improving the functioning of the school and the quality of the education provided, in terms of a higher success rate, a lower drop-out rate, a lower grade repetition rate, a higher grade promotion rate and a higher rate of examination success;
- finding ways and means of genuine participation.

The measures to be established and implemented obviously depend, as we have already emphasized, on the degree of freedom of the school principal and his partners (teachers, the local authorities, parents). This degree of freedom must be evaluated in terms of a set of factors about which something can be done; for example:

- the teaching method employed;
- teaching materials and facilities;
- the breakdown of the pupils and the pedagogic structure of the school;
- the breakdown of teachers;
- the premises;
- the school timetable;
- extra-curricular and out-of-school activities;
- relations with the local authorities;
- relations with the Inspector;
- relations with the local community;
- relations with families;
- relations with former pupils;
- the in-service training of teachers;
- the use of the resources of the immediate environment;
- the possibility of adopting a new or experimental form of teaching;
- recourse to more remote sources of aid (national or foreign);
- ...

This systems approach can lead to a number of innovative measures helping to solve the problems posed by the major difficulty.

Every school is faced with many difficulties; they should be placed in order of importance in order to determine which of them predominates and needs to be surmounted first of all. For example, it is no use changing the arrangement of the pupils in the classrooms or providing a period of supervised study after school hours if the predominant difficulty lies in the non-motivation of the teachers or in parents' refusal to send their children to school.

An overall strategy must be defined; taking action on a specific point often triggers reactions on a number of other points.

As an example, we shall quote a series of possible innovations from 'Teaching under difficult conditions: the problem of large classes'(1):

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(1) Teaching in large classes. Jean Valérien, Unesco, 1989.

WHAT IT IS POSSIBLE TO CHANGE	WHAT INNOVATIONS ARE POSSIBLE
Teaching methods	Prudent and controlled application of active methods based on securing greater pupil participation: Physical education and sport. Diversification of educational activities in the form of workshops, supervised by teachers or volunteer parents. Introduction of subjects requiring a high degree of pupil involvement, e.g. population education. Introduction of forms of peer teaching and possible forms of tutoring.
Teaching materials	Inventory of environmental resources (flora, fauna, rocks) and the constitution of collections of herbs, minerals, etc. Assisted in-school production of teaching materials (wall charts, maps) and small items of equipment for science lessons.
Size of classes	Group working in a given class, trial rearrangement of pupil seating. Modification of the school structure (split-level classes, increasing the number of pupils in a class to release a supernumerary teacher for other tasks, etc. Two-shift system.

The timetable	Adaptation of the timetable to a two-shift system. Rotation of weekly day off among classes. Continuous working day without a break, or modification of the timetable in the light of pupil transport facilities. Longer working day, homework done in school under supervision.
The premises	Maintenance teams (pupils assigned to keeping the premises clean, parents undertaking maintenance work). Distribution of pupils in the classrooms. Pupil distribution so as to free a room (e.g. for science teaching).
Relations with the local authority, the Inspector, the local community	Careful and regular updating of registers and records; punctual submission of reports. Circulation of information: e.g. notification of any difficulty and also of any innovation (sometimes prior authorization is needed). Setting up of a School Council.
Relations with parents	Creation of a parents' association. Creation of a School Council.
Use of nearby resources	Inventory of resources. Recourse to volunteer workers. Recourse to back-up centre for in-school production of materials and equipment. Network of correspondents. Old Boys' and/or Old Girls' Association. Twinning with a local business. Liaison with neighbouring schools, pooling of materials and equipment.

Controls and examinations	Continuous assessment. No grade repetitions.
In-service training of teachers	Model lessons for teachers. Systematic helping of new staff by experienced teachers. Subscription to educational journals. Attendance of teachers at conferences, etc. Recourse to educational counsellors.
Financial resources	School fees. Sale of text books and supplies. School co-operative. Productive work. School fête. Exhibiton and sale of pupils' work at "open days".
Participation in community development	Information on school work and career opportunities given to parents at lectures held in the school. Twinning with a local business. Extra-curricular and post-schooling activities of economic and cultural interest; exchanges of materials and equipment; loan of premises. Out-of-school activities (functional literacy training, etc.). Help in the creation of clubs and associations.

Use of resources from further afield	Inventory of accessible resources. Recourse to former pupils in important positions. Access to back-up and experimental centres (introduction of population education, etc.). International inter-school correspondence. Twinning with a foreign school. External assistance (embassies, international organizations, etc.

I.3. THREE STAGES OF INNOVATION

An important OECD study of school improvement (1) distinguishes three distinct stages where innovation is concerned: introduction, implementation and institutionalization.

(a) The introduction of the innovation

This introduction rests on an analysis of the school designed to establish its image (or images). Deciding what image most closely corresponds to the situation, and what steps to take in consequence, is an important task to be undertaken by the school principal and his teachers when it comes to introducing an innovation.

SUGGESTIONS FOR ACTION

1 Understand the current context, both internal and external. Which images most appropriately describe them ? Do you wish to change the images ? Could you ? How fundamental a change is it possible to implement at this time ?
2 Make clear your own commitment to the project(s) you support : give time and attention to them.

(1) N.E. Stego: The Role of School Leaders in School Improvement. Acco, Leuven, Belgium, 1988.

3 However, take care not to make them appear purely personal projects ('the question is whether management of the operation has not been kept on too personal a level and whether the necessary conditions exist for making this into a permanent arrangement' – Bellevue School case). Build commitment and support, perhaps using key stimulators initially, and disperse identification with ('ownership of') the projects as widely as possible. 'I prefer to wait and ensure that the staff are on my side, try to get them to see the need for change and to get them to think that the ideas are theirs' (PSL, Anderson School). The 'steam-roller approach' generally has serious limitations, but equally there is a danger that introduction stretches into infinity, and remember that commitment often only develops after experience.

4 Ensure that everyone is clear about the nature of the project and what it is intended to achieve. This applies equally when the initiative has come from outside the school leadership team, when the PSL and/or the team should make their attitude to the initiative explicit.

5 The likely gains (professional and personal) to affected individuals and groups must be evident : if possible, they should be seen to outweigh probable losses. Do what you can to provide incentives and remove disincentives (for example, the probability of work overload).

6 Try to secure and allocate necessary resources of time and money, especially for staff development relevant to the methods and processes of the project. If you do not succeed in this, reconsider the original ideas. Exert pressure, but only if you can provide help.

7 Create new structures, roles and teams for the projects where appropriate.

8 Ensure that the proposed 'solution' bears some relationship to the defined problem or opportunity, and that some serious planning for implementation takes place : provide time (including your own) and support for this. 'One of his great strengths is that he is full of ideas but this is part of his weakness : his ideas are not thought out clearly ... he doesn't really know how to move people in the direction that he wants' (the DSL speaking about the PSL of Bailey School).

9 When all is said and done about the need for careful diagnosis and planning, remember the ambiguity and the disorderly nature of much of the organizational world in which we live. If you are reasonably clear about the direction to move in, have the confidence to take educated risks, to be opportunistic and resourceful and to take the consequences, and encourage such an approach among your colleagues. The risks that the PSL of Castleton took were not wild, impulsive ones : they 'were based on a clear assessment of the problem, the context, the bureaucracy. They were calculated risks taken to create the best promise of success'.

10 Finally, remember the importance of maintaining stability while introducing change. 'Runners' have valuable skills just as 'starters' do, and there is little evidence that heroic or theatrical acts of leadership produce more improvement than do effective systems of routine behaviour. Ensure that these systems are in good working order before you embark on your projects, or on those of others.

Organisations change by modest modifications of routines rather than by massive mucking' around ... The importance of simple competence in the routines of organisational life is often overlooked when we sing the grand arias of management

(b) The implementation of the innovation

1 First, recognize and acknowledge that implementation exists, or should exist, as a phase in the process of change and improvement (Hall and Hord, forthcoming).
2 It is not enough merely to acknowledge implementation ; this phase must be accommodated by plans and actions that will contribute to its successful completion.
3 Make plans (for both long-term strategies and short-range daily operations) to ensure that the ultimate objectives of the targeted improvement are, in fact, implemented in your school (Hall and Hord, 1984).
4 Give material support. Providing a continuing supply of materials and resources, organizational support and logistical arrangements is essential to strengthen the implementation process. Key resource needs are money and time : money to procure what is needed, and sufficient time to enable implementation to occur. Continuing vigorous resource acquisition from internal *and* external sources is a basic implementation requirement ; once acquired, the resources must be husbanded, distributed, maintained (Hord and Huling-Austin, 1986).
5 Pay attention to the needs of staff. Development or training in the new understandings and skills the improvement requires is a continuing process. The work might be performed by school leaders or arranged by them and carried out by external support personnel. Remember, not only teachers but also school leaders themselves need such professional development on a continuing basis, as they support the work of teachers (Hord, Thurber, and Hall, 1981).
6 Communicate clearly and articulately the envisioned improvement, and how it could ideally look in practice ; this is another area of vital activity for school leaders (Hall and Loucks, 1981). As implementation progresses, the change can be more fully realized, more sharply focused. Again, the implementation process itself may give rise to revisions of the projected change. It is the school leader's task to keep abreast of the unfolding change process, and to help foster greater understanding of the evolving change on the part of staff.
7 Monitor the change. 'Take the pulse' of implementation in order to know what is needed. There are procedures that school leaders can use for monitoring ; they focus on how teachers are progressing from novice to expert in their acquisition of new skills (Hord and Huling-Austin, 1985).
8 Follow through. Change is a continuing process, and so is the adjustment of teachers to it. School leaders can facilitate teachers' work by meeting teachers on a one-to-one basis, reinforcing their efforts for change and helping to resolve their individual problems in relation to change (Joyce and Showers, 1982). Such personalized assistance and attention serves to increase the degree of participation and commitment of teachers and all individuals involved (Hord and Huling-Austin, 1986).
9 Keep in touch with teachers. Appreciate their reactions and concerns about change, maintain trust in them, provide time for them to assimilate new ideas and develop improved educational practices. The human relations dimension cannot be underestimated. It has been indicated as a powerful factor in success-

ful change and must be addressed by school leaders (Hall and Loucks, 1978).

10 Know your school system. The school leader's relationship with external authorities can be another important factor that promotes or inhibits implementation and change. If you have experience or contacts at the district level or beyond, use them. If not, study the system in order to see how it works and how to work effectively within it, to be able to gauge which and how much risk to take, to understand how to make external policies work for the benefit of the school. Political sensitivity, 'savvy', and skills are invaluable aids to school leaders in fostering implementation.

11 Inform, relate, communicate. Public relations techniques can be applied both within and outside the school, using newsletters, bulletin boards, meetings, the local news media, etc., to inform the various internal and external constituencies and gain their support for the implementation of the desired change. Here again, the message is that communicating with constituent groups need not be limited merely to helping to introduce a change ; rather, it can and should continue throughout implementation, and beyond.

12 Finally, implementation requires a finely balanced set of actions and responses by school leaders that provide *pressure and support* to all individuals involved in implementing new practice. How leaders provide these elements, and their 'style' in doing so, can contribute significantly to implementation effectiveness (Hall *et al.*, 1984 ; Kwantes and Rohde, 1982). By taking full advantage of the opportunities their position offers, school leaders can be of the utmost importance in making improvement a reality in schools.

(c) The institutionalization of the innovation

1 In many innovation processes, too little attention and time seem to be given to the institutionalization part. Too often we expect that this happens of itself without any action being taken. This is not correct. Just like the other stages, institutionalization must be actively managed in order not to waste energy.

2 Managing the process of institutionalization means especially taking care of the necessary changes in the organizational structures, rules and procedures. These changes anchor the innovation in the school and protect it against inside and outside threats.

3 On the other hand, we must realize that not everything is manageable. Reality is chaotic, complex and unpredictable and there are many events that cannot be foreseen but which influence the institutionalization process for better or worse. School leaders involved in innovations must be aware of this and must be capable of ad hoc actions and interventions.

4 Introduction, implementation and institutionalization are processes that have partly to be managed simultaneously. Early consideration of institutionalization problems can prevent many troubles later on.

INNOVATIVE CAPACITY OF SCHOOLS

In the end, an innovation must be absorbed into the organizational setting of the school and into the minds of its users. Obviously, we want a good new practice to stay. But becoming part of the daily routine does not mean that it remains good and sacrosanct for ever. If so, institutionalization becomes a conserving practice. Times change, pupils change. our knowledge of education grows and professionals have a need for new challenges to stay awake. Permanent problem-solving and adaptation to new requirements of the environment are necessary. A school must be able to sense these needs and possibilities for adaptation and improvement and must have a internalized capacity to change and develop. We refer to this characteristic of schools as 'innovative capacity'. Interventions of school leaders towards specific innovation processes are of vital importance ; however, we might argue that building up this innovative capacity is an even more essential part of the PSL's mission. We could say more radically that the only thing that really should be institutionalized is the permanent changing of things and the capacity to manage these processes. Procedures, relationships and practices must be established that enable the school to learn from its own experience. But this is still harder to accomplish. It means influencing rather fixed structural and cultural factors in the school.

Some conclusions

1 A vital part of the school leader's mission is building up the innovative capacity of the school. Procedures, relationships and practices must be established to enable the school to learn from its own experience.
2 The key concept here seems to be the school climate, which is concerned with the atmosphere and the quality of living and working together in the school. This character or personality of the school as a system determines its capacity to change when needed.
3 The organizational key factors that influence the school climate are structural and cultural. For the structural dimension, a balanced combination of clarity and flexibility is required. For the cultural dimension, it is stated that the PSL's personal style of leadership must fit into the school culture. At the same time, his/her style has great influence on this culture. He or she serves as an example.
4 PSLs should not too easily accept the limits or boundaries of their school. Disobedience or challenge to the system are sometimes required and effective. It becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy if the system is permanently conceived as hard or impossible to change.

II. THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AS AN AGENT OF DEVELOPMENT

II.1. The educational situation in Sub-Saharan Africa

The situation in a number of African countries South of the Sahara is extremely disquieting. Numerous difficulties are encountered, in whole or in part, among them:

(1) A wide disparity between urban and rural areas. Schools in rural areas may be located far from the capital or from the administrative authority of the district or the area, and communication is by mail or by road, so that contact is often irregular.

(2) Because of the high birth rate, the very considerable increase in the number of children attending school has not in all cases meant a real increase in the enrolment ratio. This growth in school attendance often entails:

- a very large number of pupils per class. It is not unusual for a teacher to be in charge of 60 to 100 pupils for 22 to 30 hours a week. This growth has been very rapid.

...

- insufficient qualifications of teachers hastily recruited to cope with requirements at the beginning of the school year. Apart from the principal, who teaches for a limited number of hours (or not at all), only some of these teachers have undergone regular and complete training, either professional or general.

- a considerable development of the administration, notably at the central and provincial levels. This is reflected in a large-scale recruitment of educators untrained in administrative practice, which often explains the weakness of the forecasting and planning sectors.

(3) Apart from some rare exceptions - for example, in the Côte d'Ivoire - the teaching profession is not very well paid and not attractive. The advantages granted to school principals (indemnity for administrative responsibilities, the provision of accommodation or an indemnity in lieu) are not substantial. This has repercussions on the motivation of teachers.

(4) The limitation, or even the reduction, of State resources allotted to education is reflected in a new distribution of educational expenditure among the central administration, territorial units, communities and families.

Premises are often inadequate: schools are decrepit and badly maintained, and the furniture (often provided at parents' expense) is unsuitable.

(5) The curricula, despite successive modifications, are by unanimous agreement inadequate in relation to the aspirations and needs of the country. They take no account of the national socio-economic context and are designed as a preparation for the continuance of studies at the secondary and higher levels. Only a minority of pupils continue their studies at these levels, whereas the majority of the children leave primary school without being really integrated in the local productive sector. This means that the school is ill-matched to social and cultural realities.

(6) In particular, curricula provide for learning to read and write in a language which is not always the pupils' mother tongue. The adoption of national languages does not solve all problems, and pupils are often weak in written and oral expression.

(7) Teaching materials and resources are not always adequate. When they are imported, they involve a heavy expenditure in foreign currency, and are not necessarily adapted to the cultural, historic, social and economic context of the country.

The number of textbooks per pupil is very low; the same textbook sometimes has to be used by several pupils, and the teacher has to distribute the textbooks and collect them at each lesson. This deprives the pupils of a valuable aid for their homework.

(8) The social demand for education varies from one segment of the population to another. In urban areas, some parents are able to provide material conditions and intellectual assistance for homework. Others cannot, especially in rural areas, where the illiteracy rate among parents is often high.

(9) An important factor is the inertia of the education system, which aggravates the above difficulties. A measure introduced at the central or provincial level often takes a long time to produce its effects.

(10) All these handicaps explain the mediocre yield of the primary school, with a low rate of grade promotion (around 60 to 75 %) and a high rate of grade repetition. This increases the cost of education without really increasing its efficacity.

II.2. The response of governments to difficulties

All the above difficulties are not necessarily encountered at one and the same time in a given province or country. Furthermore, in recent decades governments have made a thorough and frank analysis of them. In all fairness, it should be recognized that important reforms have nowadays been introduced.

(1) Political measures are aimed at adopting new goals in order to introduce new curricula in line with specific national circumstances.

For example, major reforms have been adopted in Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire, Senegal, the Central African Republic and Cameroon.

In this respect, the example of Burundi is significant. The reform of primary education decided upon in 1973 has adopted the objectives of "Burundization" and rural development, the provision of a community school being considered an essential component of integrated rural development.

The curriculum has been modified: the profile of the pupils when they leave school must no longer be a pure and simple reproduction of imported cultural models in contradiction to, or ill-matched to, African values and national realities. These new curricula provide for the introduction of modern agricultural, pastoral and artisanal techniques allowing of the transition to a market economy based on the intensification and diversification of agricultural production.

Provision is also made for:

- the rural community gradually assuming the cost of primary education;
- the school enrolment of all children from 8 to 14;
- integrated rural development of the community type (90% of all production is rural).

These new provisions entail the gradual transformation of traditional primary schools into self-financed rural community schools, run by school co-operatives open to parents, teachers and representatives of public and private civic bodies, together with the gradual setting up of a structure of rural leadership and lifelong education on the basis of the cores of development which these community schools constitute.

(2) In the context of these ambitious reforms, the administration must cope with new requirements:

- handle a larger intake of pupils with constant resources;
- raise the general and professional level of insufficiently qualified teachers;
- prepare all teachers, whatever their level, for the new tasks and the new skills required by the implementation of the reform;
- produce specific teaching materials and textbooks.

To this end, the following measures have in most cases been adopted:

- the introduction of two shifts, each school receiving two sets of pupils (one in the morning, the other in the afternoon) under the charge of either different teachers (Guinea) or the same teachers (Senegal); in the latter case, this adds to their workload;
- the strengthening of the corps of inspectors;
- the opening of further training centres headed by the Inspector of Primary Education and grouping experienced teachers so as to train them as 'teaching advisers', visiting schools or bringing teachers together periodically for teaching workshops;
- the use of the radio for teacher training;
- the creation of correspondence courses, providing the possibility of further professional training and the improvement of career prospects;
- the organization of seminars or intensive refresher courses during school holidays;
- the production of new teaching materials (by the school printing works, encouraging schools to produce their own teaching materials and resources).

Up to the present, these measures have had only a limited effect:

- the inspectors (whose numbers are still inadequate) and the teaching counsellors encounter difficulties in travelling from

one place to another, and their administrative work is increased to the detriment of their teaching activities; inspection is still more a matter of 'control' than of 'leadership';

- radio broadcasts have the same limited effect as traditional lectures delivered by inspectors (the subject dealt with is of too general a nature, there is no feedback, it is difficult to meet the extremely diversified needs of a very heterogeneous public, etc.);

- correspondence courses, which usually have to be paid for, are addressed to only a limited number of teachers, and drop-outs are frequent due to the difficulty of working alone;

- refresher courses, based on a multiplier principle (national seminar, provincial seminars, local sessions, etc.) remain limited;

- the double shift system introduced in urban areas has admittedly enabled a greater number of pupils to attend school, but in general it has not reduced the number of pupils per class.

It is in this context of a series of measures which have not proved very efficacious that greater importance is placed on 'senior educational personnel', and in particular on school principals.

For example, in the example of Burundi, the Bureau d'Action Rurale (set up in parallel with the central administration for applying the reform), on the basis of a systematic analysis of the situation of schools to which the reform has been applied, gives priority to the training of the 'school principal-school leader' in order to bring about the changes planned.

The qualification and motivation of the school principal is the dimension which today calls for most attention, because it is the pole around which all the others are integrated and it is a determining factor in the efficacity of the educational action.

(3) It is in this context that the school principal is nowadays required to be a protagonist in community development, the school itself being a central development project in relation to other projects.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

AN OVERALL SCHOOL PROJECT

I. AN OVERALL SCHOOL PROJECT

How is it possible to put into effect, in the day-to-day life of the school, a dynamism and efficacity through which the school is seen as a positive driving force of change? How can the running of the school best be adapted? How can we seek to improve the quality of education except by introducing and institutionalizing innovations?

The margin of action is limited by two factors.

In the school or in the immediate environment, the school principal may encounter strong resistance to, or criticism of, what he does. How many original, creative and positive experiments remain confined to one school, without being taken full advantage of and transposed to other schools? Innovation has the greatest difficulty in spreading from one point to another and becoming generally adopted.

At the other end of the educational process, those responsible for the central administration encounter very great difficulty in implementing the guidelines laid down by the political authorities. The priorities may differ from one territory to another in the same country, or they may even differ from one neighbourhood to another in the same town. Pressures of all kinds, including economic pressures, affect the purchase of materials. Opinions differ as regards help from outside sources. Institutional conflicts between different ministerial departments are frequent. The adoption of measures, arrangements and procedures applicable to the country as a whole encounters numerous difficulties and is not always accompanied by detailed practical instructions.

This limited scope of action must not, however, restrain the principal's determination to act and to innovate where a specific project for his school is concerned.

The objectives of this project must be clearly designed for the benefit of teachers, parents and the community. These objectives may, for example, be:

- improvement of the quality of teaching and learning; this objective must be 'measurable' in terms of grade repetition and drop-out rates, or in terms of the comparison of the results achieved in a given subject by different classes, and especially by comparison with results achieved by neighbouring schools;

- improvement of the way the school is run, notably by creating a satisfactory internal climate (teamwork, democratic functioning of the School Council, etc.);

- facing the challenge of participation, creating a better image of the school and bringing parents and the community into the management and running of the school.

Such a project may be built around three axes, only two of which are under the control of the school principal, the third depending on bodies at a higher level.

1. First component: knowing how to introduce, apply and institutionalize innovations decided upon by the central or provincial administration

Most countries have adopted a thoroughgoing reform of primary education, giving it new goals (so that pupils are integrated into the productive sector when they complete their primary education if they do not continue their studies at the secondary level), and adopting new curricula - for example, the study of national languages, the introduction of productive work, the adoption of new textbooks, etc.

This reform is often gradual, and involves a series of new measures promulgated each year.

In addition, practical arrangements may be made to cope with a difficulty that has not been mastered, for example, the introduction of the double shift system so as to cope with a greater number of pupils in the same premises.

The school principal here has a determining role to play:

- he must explain the changes brought about by the regulations, both to pupils and to parents;

- in most cases, he must adapt measures laid down in the general plan but whose procedures are not detailed. This means that the principal must often find local solutions and solutions specific to his school in order to adopt and adapt the measures laid down in the general plan. This can be done mainly through staff meetings, the parents' association, and the monitoring of the results achieved by pupils and classes.

2. Second component: introducing and applying innovations which require no modification of the regulations, and which depend on the principal alone

These innovations may lie in very different fields, such as:

- collective self-instruction at staff meetings (e.g. a model lesson subjected to collective analysis by the teachers);

- on-the-spot production of teaching materials, for example the gradual building up by teachers and pupils of collections of herbs, minerals, rocks, and stuffed animals, or again the production of wall charts and maps for the teaching of geography and science; materials made up from odds and ends, etc.;

- the creation of an association of former pupils, enabling active help to be canvassed from people in or outside the community (e.g. former pupils occupying an important post in the neighbouring town or in the capital);

- inter-school correspondence.

However, other innovations which depend on the school principal require certain precautions, such as prior information from the primary school inspector (or the local authorities) and the community authorities:

- structural modifications: for example, the creation of two-level classes to avoid grade repetitions; pedagogic hypotheses to be verified for the creation of homogeneous and heterogeneous classes (weak pupils and able pupils); activities shared between groups of pupils from different classes and different levels;

- creation of a parents' association (if it does not yet exist);

- twinning with a foreign school;

- convention with a local business or industrial enterprise;

- organization of an 'open day', explaining the curriculum, describing the progress of work, and exhibiting pupils' work;

- annual fete or tombola;

- organization of round table meetings and discussions.

Prior information and the canvassing of opinions and advice among members of the community, the local authorities, inspectors and local educational administrative authorities, definitely help to create a positive image of the school which when the time comes will be an additional asset for obtaining participation in a pilot project.

3. Over and above the reforms decided upon by the central administration and their application in the school, and over and above the innovations which the principal may himself introduce in his school in concertation with the teachers, the community and the Inspector, a pilot project is extremely valuable as an experimental preparation for innovation and change.

Such pilot projects, which are often undertaken with substantial outside aid, are of value when they cover a sufficiently wide geographical area for the innovations introduced and put into effect to be adopted on a permanent basis.

It is difficult, in each school, to augment budgetary and financial resources so as to improve the running of the school, whereas additional resources can more easily be obtained for a number of schools working together on a project.

These schools can be grouped in many ways; in Morocco, for example, the 'school district' includes a main school and satellite schools; in other countries, such as the Côte d'Ivoire and Guinea, the basic territory is the primary education area which is assigned to an Inspector aided by one or two educational counsellors depending on the size of the area.

The twinning of two schools is necessarily of limited scope, but its scope can be considerably broadened if it is included in the twinning of

two areas, that is to say, a programme of exchanges between, for example, the schools in an area of an African country and those in an area of a European country.

The pilot project can (with increased possibilities and resources) comprise all the innovations we have listed above. In addition, it can:

- Facilitate the participation of the community by creating, for example, a School Council (parents, community participants, leading personalities, teachers, and the school principal) in whom a certain degree of authority is vested (just like a board of directors).

- Introduce new contents and methods. For example, almost all countries have a network of experimental schools for the introduction of population education. The purpose is to introduce pupils, from primary school onwards, to demographic mechanism, the causes of natality and mortality, migratory phenomena (including the rural exodus), relationships between development and population, resources and environment, and the prevention of the risks connected with modern life, which is more complex and technological yet less human (safety in the home, road safety, alcohol, tobacco, drug abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, AIDS, etc.).

  Such interdisciplinary contents are aimed at inculcating or promoting new patterns of behaviour. Each pupil must, when the time comes, be responsible for his courses of action and for the way he behaves in a rapidly changing society. This can be done only by participative methods, by pupil-centred learning, pooling and using the pupils' knowledge and reactions.

  The introduction of these new contents provides an opportunity of working together with other sectors of development and other ministerial departments (health, rural economy, agriculture, handcrafts and industry, the status of women, etc.).

- Again, the pilot project can introduce innovative measures, recommending that the structure of the school be modified so as to make a new classroom and a new teacher available. The construction of a new classroom and the creation of a new teaching post does not mean that the school can handle more pupils, but it means that each class can be split into two for several hours a week. Thanks to this duplication, a half-class can take advantage of the new premises, fitted out as a 'writing laboratory', providing pupils with comfortable conditions and possibilities which they cannot enjoy in their over-crowded and ill-furnished classroom.

II. Strategy to be adopted

The overall school project, as summed up here, cannot be proposed at one fell swoop to teachers, parents and leaders of the community. With the help of the present guide, you will have been able to analyse yourself and your school. This self-analysis should enable you to outline a strategy. In

some cases it will be in your interest to introduce changes one after another, in other cases you may take more rapid action and introduce several innovations at a time.

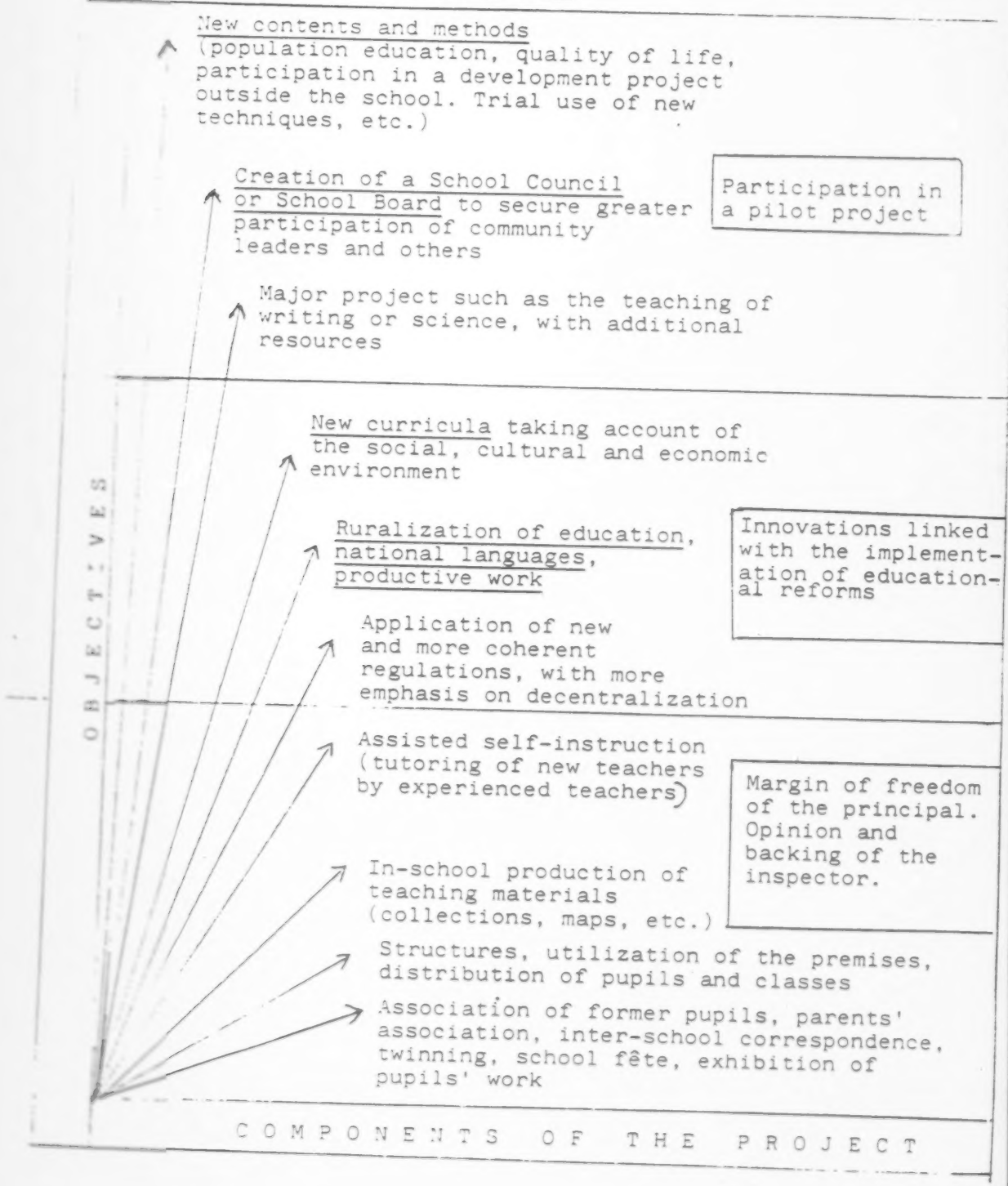
But remember, whatever strategy you adopt, the confidence of your teachers and the authorization of your Inspector, as well as the adhesion of parents, are essential conditions as well as very important assets.

The adoption of simple and well-thought-out innovations should favour the participation of your school in a pilot project which can provide you with some additional resources. But in this case you cannot be a decision-maker, you can only be an applicant; but an enlightened and convinced applicant able to supply the information necessary for the project submitted to be accepted.

Improving pupils' scholastic success
Improving the running of the school
Improving the quality of education
Securing greater participation

← with numerical indicators

Some examples


New contents and methods
(population education, quality of life, participation in a development project outside the school. Trial use of new techniques, etc.)
Creation of a School Council or School Board to secure greater participation of community leaders and others
Participation in a pilot project
Major project such as the teaching of writing or science, with additional resources
New curricula taking account of the social, cultural and economic environment
Ruralization of education, national languages, productive work
Innovations linked with the implementation of educational reforms
Application of new and more coherent regulations, with more emphasis on decentralization
Assisted self-instruction (tutoring of new teachers by experienced teachers)
Margin of freedom of the principal. Opinion and backing of the inspector.
In-school production of teaching materials (collections, maps, etc.)
Structures, utilization of the premises, distribution of pupils and classes
Association of former pupils, parents' association, inter-school correspondence, twinning, school fête, exhibition of pupils' work
OBJECTIVES
COMPONENTS OF THE PROJECT

APPENDICES

I. Selected bibliography.

II. Glossary.

III. Data-sheets.

APPENDIX I

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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APPENDIX II

GLOSSARY *

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* Most of the terms and definitions are taken from The functions of educational administration and the training of educational administrators (EPP, Unesco, 1984) (available in French and Spanish only).

ABSENCE

The term can apply to either a teacher or a pupil who is not present in the school, for whatever reason.

ACCOUNTING

The keeping of records of expenditure, income, outstanding debts, etc., providing correct and up-to-date information for the co-ordination and control of financial operations.

ADMINISTRATIVE DECENTRALIZATION

The transfer of certain decision-making powers from a central authority to a provincial or local authority. The administration of primary education, for example, is decentralized up to a point, important powers of decision-making being delegated to local or provincial school authorities.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS

The administrative process involves four main functions through which those responsible for educational management administer:

1. planning, in order to determine objectives and courses of action;
2. organization, in order to distribute work among different groups and establish and recognize the necessary authority;
3. execution, so that the members of the group may properly accomplish their tasks;
4. the control of activities, so that they may correspond to the plan.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Equipment for recording and reproducing sounds and pictures, such as projectors, tape recorders, closed-circuit television, etc.

AUTHORITY

That which gives the organizational structure cohesion and enables different activities to be placed under the direction of an administrator, thereby ensuring co-ordination. Authority is the instrument which enables the administration to create the necessary conditions for individual activities to be carried out. It is also an essential means of communicating decisions within an organization.

BUDGETARY YEAR

The financial year commencing on 1st January and ending on 31st December, during which operations giving rise to expenditure and income are performed.

CLASS

This term is synonymous with grade, and is also used to designate the group of pupils in a given grade. Sometimes it is used in the sense of 'lesson', as in 'the mathematics class'.

COMMUNICATION

The interchange of messages, thoughts or opinions (in written form, orally, or by any other means) in such a way that the message has meaning for both the sender and the recipient. Communication is a social act involving one or more people, involving various degrees or possibilities of interaction. It also enables a social unity to be established among human beings pursuing common aims.

CONTROL

The procedure by which operations which have been carried out are compared with those which have been planned, to identify the differences between them so as to be able to correct any errors or deviations.

COST ANALYSIS

The comparison of real costs with pre-calculated or predetermined costs, making it possible to determine the extent and causes of variations or deviations, to discover what might have influenced such causes, to complement or revise norms, policies, plans, methods and techniques, to eliminate unfavourable conditions, and to apply procedures of this kind to situations which need to be corrected.

COST-BENEFIT ANALYSIS

In economic terms, a procedure for assessing the full 'social' costs and benefits of a given form of investment in order to evaluate its economic profitability. It is a way of assessing future benefits in relation to present costs. It is therefore a method of choosing the wisest form of investment. Education being equated with a human investment, educational economists use cost-benefit analysis to compare the cost of real resources allotted to education with the economic benefits resulting from these investments. The analysis may take the form of a calculation of the rate of return, or the calculation of the ratio of cost to benefit, using an appropriate discount rate to compare the two. Having regard to the fact that the economic benefits where education is concerned are essentially measured in terms of the incomes of the people turned out by the education system, and that these incomes also depend on the labour market, cost-benefit analysis can provide the educational planner with valuable information on the existing links between education and the labour market, as well as on the economic consequences of different educational policies.

COST-EFFECTIVENESS

A measure of the relative cost of alternative methods of achieving a purpose where a cost-benefit study becomes too difficult or nebulous because values cannot be attached to costs or benefits.

Cost effectiveness may be calculated in two ways:

- By comparing the costs of different solutions whose efficacity corresponds to the same proportion of a given objective. The least costly solution is then considered to be the best.

- By comparing the efficacity of different solutions which may be adopted within the limits of a given budget. The solution guaranteeing the highest efficacity is then given preference.

CULTURE

This term can be interpreted in various ways, all of them bearing a relation to education. Usually, culture is understood to mean the totality of human knowledge and achievements (explicit or implicit, rational or irrational) at a given period, serving as a possible guide to human behaviour. Culture is also the body of religious or moral beliefs, customs and behaviour patterns stemming from a historical process and shared by all or some members of a group, that is to say a society.

CURRICULUM

A curriculum is a set of planned and guided learning actions which includes a definition of the instructional aims, contents, methods (including evaluation), equipment (including textbooks) and teacher training.

In this broader meaning, 'curriculum development' covers the entire curriculum preparation and implementation process, while 'curriculum evaluation' is the ongoing process of partial and/or specific evaluation.

In a more restricted meaning, 'curriculum' can simply refer to a programme or syllabus, i.e. the distribution of subject matter or the contents of a discipline within a given level, school or group of schools.

See also 'syllabus'.

DECONCENTRATION

The setting up of local or regional services under the aegis of a central administration. Deconcentration is not the same as decentralization; it does not involve the delegation of authority, which continues to be exclusively vested in the central administration.

DELEGATION

The assignment of tasks and of the authority necessary for their accomplishment, together with the responsibility for their performance.

DETERMINATION OF OBJECTIVES

Objectives are determined by defining all the observable and measurable reactions produced by an educational, training or teaching aim or set of aims.

DEVELOPMENT

A dynamic phenomenon whose implications are much more profound those of economic growth, social progress or simple change. It is tantamount to a total transformation of the national image; it is a multi-dimensional transformation process which involves the elimination or drastic reduction of internal structural imbalances and of the international dependence of the country concerned.

DISCIPLINE

A specific area of knowledge which is taught as a distinct subject, with its own educational context, procedures, methods and content.

DROP-OUT

A pupil or student who abandons his studies before the completion of a school year or a stage of education.

DROP-OUT RATE (OR RATIO)

The percentage of pupils who drop out of school before completing a school year or a stage of education.

EDUCATION

The term covers all acts or processes whose purpose is to develop and cultivate in the individual intellectual abilities, knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour, in such a way as to ensure that this training is of certain value for the society in which the individual lives.

EDUCATION SYSTEM

The structural organization, as a whole, by which education of all types and at all levels is provided for the population.

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Educational administration comprises all the administrative and financial services and departments involved in educational management at all levels of responsibility. It may be considered as a process employed to effectively attain previously established objectives, having recourse to human, material, organizational, technical and financial resources. It is not an end in itself; it is an instrument in the service of educational policy, which must be dynamically adapted to the basic aspirations of the country concerned.

EDUCATIONAL DEMAND

Every kind of demand which may be defined and provided for with regard to the expansion, content and yield of education, stemming from the aspirations of families and individuals; aspirations to the satisfaction of which they are entitled. Educational demand is reflected in national cultural, economic and social development objectives.

EDUCATIONAL DIRECTIVES

The means by which final expected results are analysed, or objectives are formulated in terms of observable and measurable lines of action, instruments of evaluation matching the objectives are prepared, sequences of teaching and learning are determined, and ways and means of putting them into effect are selected; all in such a way that each of the stages laid down constitutes a unique reference for decision-making in subsequent stages.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The application of systematic and rational analysis to the process of educational development. Its purpose is to enable education more effectively to meet the requirements and objectives of pupils, students and society.

EDUCATIONAL PROJECT

An instrument to which recourse may be had at all levels of planning, including - and especially - the basic level, in order to provide responses to needs, expectations and interests which are in line with the interests of the nation as a whole. The project is also a means of matching major objectives and targets to needs and possibilities at different levels of educational development.

EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Educational reform is an integral part of social transformations, and introduces fundamental changes in national educational objectives, standards and institutions.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS

The gathering, analysis, interpretation and presentation of all numerical data relating to the education system.

EDUCATIONAL STRATEGY

The formulation of plans, programmes and projects to attain general or specific objectives or to solve problems with which the education system is faced.

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

The application of technology to the solution of problems related to the teaching and learning process. Multi-media systems are an example.

EFFICACITY OF THE SCHOOL IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

The degree to which educational and operational objectives are attained in relation to the resources provided for their attainment. An effective system is one in which these objectives are met with the minimum of resources while meeting a predetermined standard of quality.

ENROLMENT

The formal and voluntary act by which a child is accepted as a pupil in a primary school, and which involves the obligation to conform to the laws, regulations and standards laid down.

ENROLMENT RATE (OR RATIO)

The ratio of the number of pupils actually enrolled and the total population of children of school age.

EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

Equality of educational opportunity means that every child should have the best possible chances of developing his personal faculties as they exist at the time when he or she enters school. This objective obviously cannot be attained by treating all children in exactly the same way. The concept of equality of opportunity is more modern and radical than that; it means taking steps to remedy de facto inequalities in the broadest context in which schools operate, that is to say society, with a view to meeting long-term objectives aimed at providing everyone with an occupation and a certain standard of living.

EVALUATION

The critical analysis of a given situation. Evaluation may be made before any action is taken, in which case it consists of establishing the qualitative and quantitative advantages and drawbacks of that action. Evaluation after the event is a critical analysis of the results achieved, designed to introduce any necessary corrections.

EVALUATION OF AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME

This covers all evaluation procedures whose purpose is:

- to provide information which may guide decisions relating to changes or modifications in the programme;
- to observe the changes which occur among the pupils following the programme;
- to detect the strong points and the weak points of a school applying the programme;
- to advance knowledge of the teaching and learning process;

- more generally, to provide bases of assessment guiding administrative decisions.

EVALUATION OF NEEDS

Generally speaking, a social need may be defined as the gap between an acceptable state of affairs and an observed state of affairs. The expression 'evaluation of needs' designates all the procedures which make it possible to estimate the gap between the level attained in a learning process and the level defined by an operational objective. This gap may be evaluated by objective or subjective procedures. The needs of a group or of an individual school may also be evaluated.

FORMAL EDUCATION

The structured, chronologically ordered education provided in primary and secondary schools, in universities and specialized courses of full-time technical and higher education. It usually leads to some formal recognition of educational performance, such as a diploma, degree or professional qualification.

GRADE REPETITION RATE (OR RATIO)

The ratio of the number of pupils who repeat a grade in a given school year, and the total number of pupils enrolled in the school in that year.

INDIVIDUALIZED TEACHING

Teaching adapted to the needs of each pupil so as to promote self-instruction, progress in learning, and independent selection of objectives and resources.

INNOVATION

The creative selection, organization and utilization of human and material resources in a new and original form enabling established aims and objectives to be more assuredly attained. Innovation is necessary in order to make the best use of possibilities and to move in the direction of the model which has been set as the ideal. The education system develops progressively through innovation.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

A planned programme of ongoing training for professional personnel so that they may gain greater experience in the course of their work.

INSPECTORATE

In the framework of educational administration, the Inspectorate is responsible for evaluating the quality of the work of administrative and teaching personnel, to advise teachers so as to improve the quality and effectiveness of their teaching, and to submit recommendations for their promotion.

LEARNING

The process, the duration of whose effects may vary, by which a person acquires new behaviour patterns or changes existing behaviour patterns in interaction with the background or the environment. It is a process which enables the pupil to assimilate knowledge, skills and new forms of behaviour in order to solve difficulties encountered when faced with new situations.

LEVEL OF EDUCATION

What a pupil has learned in relation to the curriculum normally corresponding to his age.

LIFELONG EDUCATION

The concept that education is not a once-for-all experience confined to the initial cycle of full-time education commenced in childhood, but a process that must continue throughout life. Life itself is a continuous learning process, but each person also needs specific opportunities for further and new education, adapt to changing circumstances, and achieve his fullest potential for individual development.

LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

The civil servants or local school personnel who, under the authority of the Ministry of Education, are responsible - each at his level - for managing the various echelons of the educational administration.

MEDIA/MASS MEDIA

Vehicles for the transmission of information. Educational media are those used to put over educational messages. Mass media include radio, television, the cinema, the press, etc.

METHOD

A predetermined sequence of operations designed to attain an objective and involving a plan of action. A technique differs from a method in that it is a special procedure or series of procedures.

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

Structured or organized educational activities outside the formal education system, which do not require or involve enrolment or registration of learners. Non-formal education may be regular or intermittent.

OPERATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The operational definition of an objective sets out the procedures by which its results may be assessed, produced or simply recognized among others. The complete formulation of an operational objective comprises five specific indications:

1. who will produce the desired result;

2. what observable phenomenon will show that the objective has been attained;

3. what will be its result in terms of performance;

4. under what conditions will the result manifest itself;

5 what criteria will serve to determine whether the result is satisfactory.

PARENTS' ASSOCIATION

An association whose purpose is to defend the material and moral interests of the school, pupils and families. Parents' associations are often grouped in large federations which hold national meetings and maintain contact with the Ministry of Education. The parents' association may be represented in various bodies (School Council, grants committee, etc.). Parents are under no obligation to join the association.

PLANNING

An organized attempt to select the best available alternatives in order to attain specific objectives. It is the rational application of knowledge to the process of decision-making on which action is based. It establishes relationships between ends and means so as to achieve the ends by effective use of the means.

POST ANALYSIS

The purpose of post analysis is to establish precisely the functions to be performed in each post, the corresponding rights and duties, and the quantification of these characteristics in the light of other posts in the system in question. This involves analysing the activities concerned, establishing factors of evaluation, analysing and evaluating the posts themselves, and placing them in order of importance.

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

The education of children under the age of 6. Its purpose is to promote and stimulate the child's physical, affective and mental development, its social integration, its sensory perception, and to prepare the child for school activities, all in co-ordination with parents and the community.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

The stage of formal education which begins in most countries at the age of 6 and whose duration may vary from five to eight years. The curriculum is designed to impart basic knowledge.

PROJECT EVALUATION

A project is evaluated by comparing its cost with its benefits (see cost-benefit analysis) so as to determine whether or not the ratio is more advantageous than that of an alternative project. The purpose is to determine whether the project's contribution to the objectives of economic and social development justifies its implementation in the light of the different uses which could be made of the same resources.

PUPIL/TEACHER RATIO

The ratio of the number of pupils at a given level to the number of teachers in charge of them at that level. This ratio is expressed by the formula:

$$I/E = \frac{{}^{n}I\,a}{{}^{n}E\,a}$$

where ${}^{n}I\,a$ and ${}^{n}E\,a$ are respectively the number of pupils enrolled (I) and the number of teachers (E) at a given level (n) during the year (a).

PUPIL THROUGHPUT

The number of pupils in a school who, in a given year, complete their stage of education in that school by comparison with the number of pupils who enrol in the school in that year. This provides statistics of the school's drop-out and grade repetition ratios in that year.

PUPIL'S SCHOOL RECORD

A record of all the relevant information concerning a pupil in the course of his schooling (socio-cultural background, development, etc.) as well as his scholastic results and observations on his attitudes and behaviour.

RURAL AREA

An area essentially given over to agricultural or livestock farming activities and whose population density is generally low.

SCHOOL COMPLEX

A number of different schools grouped together. It usually includes at least a kindergarten school and a primary school, and possibly a junior secondary school. The advantages of such a grouping are that it simplifies pupils' travel to and from school and it enables certain facilities to be shared (heating, sports facilities, kitchens, medical services, etc.) thereby reducing costs. It also facilitates collaboration between teachers at different levels.

SCHOOL MAPPING

The geographical distribution of existing and planned school buildings by level of education, with an indication of schools to be built, their purpose, location and size. The purpose of school mapping is to establish a diagnosis of the existing educational facilities in each significant geographical area, to assess educational demands and requirements, and to examine the practical possibilities of meeting them.

SELECTION OF ADMINISTRATORS

The basic principles of the selection of administrators are as follows:

1. the qualities required of an administrator;

2. the degree to which each of these qualities is essential;

3. how they can be combined one with another;

4. how to detect these qualities in the candidates.

The selection of administrators also involves establishing the specific characteristics of the posts to be filled, determining sources of recruitment, and evaluating candidates so as to select the most competent.

SELECTION, QUALIFICATION AND OFFICIAL APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS

These three operations are related to the possession of teaching qualifications. But qualification involves much more than the mere possession of a diploma. The latter, based on measurable standards, is only a part of a general process which includes various components: the formulation of a general pattern of qualification; the maintenance of institutional standards; the selection of men and women to follow a programme of preparation; their guidance in the course of preparation; an appropriate content and experience; identification of the skills and abilities required; evaluation of the development of these skills and abilities in the future teacher; and the forwarding of reports and comments on the candidates to the relevant authorities. So that the training, qualification and selection of teachers is an integral part of one and the same general process of education. None of these three factors can be considered in isolation from the others, and their objectives are closely linked.

SELF-INSTRUCTION

Independent learning or independent study by an individual which is usually, but not always, self-initiated and with a minimum or a complete absence of guidance or assistance by another person or agency.

SEMINAR

A meeting of teachers under the direction of one or more senior educators or specialists, for the purpose of studying a subject or a problem, mainly through discussion.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

The education (in school or otherwise) of handicapped and maladjusted pupils.

STATUS OF TEACHERS

The officially and legally established rights and duties, incentives and sanctions, governing the teaching profession.

SYLLABUS

The distinction between 'curriculum' and 'syllabus' is not yet commonly made in French-speaking countries. The syllabus is more detailed than the curriculum, covering for example the number of hours a week devoted to each subject, the aspects of that subject which are taught, the textbooks studied, etc.

SYSTEMS APPROACH

An approach by which an attempt is made to meet needs by detecting them, selecting the problems involved, defining the conditions of their solution, selecting solutions from among various alternatives, finding ways and means of dealing with them, evaluating the results, and making any necessary revisions in whole or in part.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS

In general, teachers are entitled to form themselves into associations, provided that the activities of such associations do not take place in normal working hours. They may be of a trade union, professional or social nature.

TEACHING CAREER

The career of a teacher is governed by law, which protects the exercise of the teaching profession in the public sector and guarantees security of employment and in-service training. Teachers are classified in different grades, and rules are laid down concerning conditions of admission, promotion, and post tenure, together with the conditions of promotion to the post of school principal.

TEACHING/LEARNING METHODS

Methods employed by teachers for inculcating knowledge and skills, together with means made available to the learners to improve their assimilation. The expression is used in preference to 'teaching methods' so

as to emphasize the fact that teaching is not a one-way operation, but is inseparable from the process of learning.

TEACHING PRACTICE

A probationary period during which the candidate acquires teaching skills under the direction of an experienced teacher. Such periods usually form an integral part of teacher training. The performance of the candidates is evaluated and is taken into account in the granting of a diploma or adult teaching qualification.

TRAINING

The systematic development of the attitudes, knowledge and skills required by an individual in order to perform adequately a specific task.

URBAN AREAS

Areas covered by a population centre comprising at least a hundred contiguous dwellings, that is to say, dwellings separated less than 30 metres from one another.

WARNING

A warning precedes a sanction or a punishment, and may be addressed to pupils, families (for example, if they fail to comply with the law governing compulsory school attendance), pupils in receipt of a grant (who are liable to have their grant suspended), or to teachers.

APPENDIX III

DATA-SHEETS

Records which the Inspectorate recommends the school principal to keep up to date (example of the Kingdom of Morocco).

Table No. 1

MOVEMENT OF PUPILS AND EVOLUTION OF THE SCHOOL SECTOR

Years	Teachers	Premises	Grades	Boys	Girls	Total pupils

Table No. 2

PUPILS : DEPARTURES AND ADMISSIONS

Years	DEPARTURES																ADMISSIONS								
	Admitted to J.A.S.			Admitted to C.F.E.P.			Voluntary departures			Expulsions			Changes of address			Total departures			Enrolment in different courses			Enrolment in CE 1			Total admissions		
	B*	G*	T*	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T

*B = boys G = girls T = total

BREAKDOWN BY GRADES

Table No. 3

Total pupils	CE 5	CE 4	CE 3	CE 2	CE 1	S*	Duration
						B	1st year
						G	of
						T	schooling
						B	2nd year
						G	of
						T	schooling
						B	3rd year
						G	of
						T	schooling
						B	4th year
						G	of
						T	schooling
						B	5th year
						G	of
						T	schooling
						B	6th year
						G	of
						T	schooling
						B	7th year
						G	of
						T	schooling
						B	
						G	Total
						T	

*S = sex

CE = primary grade

BREAKDOWN BY SOCIAL BACKGROUND

Table No. 4

Schools	Mother school			Sat.* school No. 1			Sat. school No. 2			Sat. school No. 3			Sat. school No. 4			Sat. school No. 5			Sat. school No.6			TOTAL		
Occupation of Parents	- PUPILS -																							
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
Crop farmer																								
Livestock farmer																								
Miner																								
Tradesman																								
Civil servant																								
Carpenter																								
Mason																								
Craftsman																								
Blacksmith																								
Mechanic																								
Haulier																								
Day labourer																								
Retired																								
Soldier																								
Electrician																								
Shoemaker																								
Hairdresser																								
Butcher																								
Unemployed																								
Living abroad																								
Tailor																								
Miscellaneous																								
Orphaned pupils																								
TOTAL																								

* Satellite school

BREAKDOWN OF PUPILS BY : GRADE
: AGE
: SEX

Table No. 5

Total	1982	1981	1980	1979	1978	1977	1976	1975	1974	S	Grade
										B	CE 1
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 2
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 3
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 4
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 5
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 1
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 2
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 3
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 4
										G	
										T	
										B	CE 5
										G	
										T	
										B	TOTAL
										G	
										T	

DEMOGRAPHIC GROWTH

Table No. 6

Number of children from the same household	Number of families per school whose children are enrolled																											
	Mother school				Satellite 1				Satellite 2				Satellite 3				Satellite 4				Satellite 5				Satellite 6				TOTAL			
	families	boys	girls	total	families	boys	girls	total	families	boys	girls	total	families	boys	girls	total	families	boys	girls	total	families	boys	girls	total	families	boys	girls	total	families	boys	girls	total

SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMISSION EXAMINATION

Table No. 7

Years	Number from CM 2			Candidates 1st A.S.			Candidates C.F.E.P.			Admitted to 1st A.S.			Admitted to C.F.E.P.			Total admissions			%		
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T

TEACHERS'S WORK SCHEDULE

Table no. 8

Days + P.E.S.*	Half-day free	from	to	1st lesson	T. No.*	Class	Teachers' Names

* P.E.S. = Physical Education and Sport

* T. = Timetable

BREAKDOWN OF PERSONNEL BY

- age
- seniority
- pupil promotion
- salary scale

Table No. 9

Number of points: Salary scale	Number of pupils promoted to the class above	Age	Inspector's rating	Seniority		Name and first name	Serial number
				In the teaching profession	In the school		

INSPECTIONS

Table No. 10

INSPECTIONS (Dates)					Teaching staff Names and first names
1990-91	1989-90	1988-89	1987-88	1986-87	

ADMINISTRATIVE STATUS

OF TEACHING STAFF

Table No. 11

Scale 7		Scale 8		Scale 9		
M*	W*	M	W	M	W	
Name	First name	Name	First name	Name	First name	Bilingual teachers
						TOTAL
Name	First name	Name	First name	Name	First name	Monolingual teachers
						TOTAL
						GRAND TOTAL

* M = Men

* W = Women

PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE SCHOOL

Table No. 12

Rooms	No.	Dates of C*	Dates of O*	Internal dimensions L	Internal dimensions W	Internal dimensions H	Floor area U.F.*	Floor area W.U.F*	Closing dates	Meters electricity / water Number: / No.: / **L

Areas

Covered floor space	:	_____	m^2
Playground	:	_____	m^2
Total area	:	_____	m^2
Possiblity of extension	:	_____	m^2

*C = Construction O = Opening U.F. = Upper floor W.U.F. = Without upper floor
**L = Location

OWNERSHIP OF SCHOOL PREMISES

Table No. 13

Schools	Min. of Ed.		Private companies		Rented		Local rural authorities		TOTAL	
	C*	HA*	C	HA	C	HA	C	HA	C	HA
Mother school										
Satellite school n° 1										
" " n° 2										
" " n° 3										
" " n° 4										
" " n° 5										
TOTAL										
Schools closed										
*										
*										
*										
*										
*										
*										
*										

*C = Classes HA = Housing accommodation